

PART I

**TWO-PHASE FLOW IN HIGH-HEAT-FLUX MICRO-CHANNEL
HEAT SINK FOR REFRIGERATION COOLING APPLICATIONS**

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by

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NOMENCLATURE

Symbols

A	Cross-sectional area
A_1, A_2, A_3	Friedel's correlation constants
A_{base}	Total base area of micro-channel heat sink
A_{ch}	Cross-sectional area of micro-channel, H_{ch}/W_{ch}
AR	Aspect ratio of micro-channel
Bo	Boiling number
C	Two-phase multiplier parameter
C_1-C_5	Correlation constants
c_1, c_2, c_3	Correlation constants
C_c	Contraction coefficient
C_D	Drag coefficient
C_G	Dimensionless constant for rectangular micro-channels
C_{vt}	Two-phase parameter for laminar liquid-turbulent vapor flow
C_{vv}	Two-phase parameter based on laminar liquid-laminar vapor flow
CHF	Critical Heat Flux
Co	Convection number, Confinement number
c_p	Specific heat
D, d	Diameter
D_b	Bubble departure diameter
D_{eq}	Equivalent hydraulic diameter for uniformly heated channel
D_h, d_h	Hydraulic diameter
$D_{h,e}$	Hydraulic diameter of micro-channel based on heating perimeter
D_{tran}	Diameter corresponding to transition from macro- to micro-behavior

DNB	Departure from Nucleated Boiling
E	Correlation constant
f	Fanning friction factor
F_f	Constant in Eqs. (II.4.8) and (II.4.9)
Fr	Froude number
G	Mass velocity [$\text{kg}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$]
g	Gravitational acceleration
H_{ch}	Micro-channel height
H_{tc}	Distance from thermocouple to base of micro-channel
h	Local heat transfer coefficient [$\text{W}/\text{m}^2 \text{K}$]; enthalpy [J/kg]
\bar{h}	Mean heat transfer coefficient across base of heat sink
h_{fg}	Latent heat of vaporization
K	Friction constant for fully developed flow
K_i	Interfacial mass flux
k	Thermal conductivity [$\text{W}/\text{m K}$]
L	Length
L_{tc}	Axial location of copper block thermocouple
M_w	Molecular weight
m	Fin parameter
\dot{m}	Mass flow rate [g/s]
MAE	Mean absolute error
N	Correlation constant; number of experimental data; Number of micro-channels in test section
Nu	Nusselt number
n	Solid particle shape factor
ONB	Onset of nucleate boiling
P	Pressure [Pa]
ΔP	Pressure drop [Pa , bar]
P_r	Reduced pressure
Pr	Prandtl number

$PM\text{-}CHF$	Pre-mature critical heat flux
Pr	Prandtl number
q''	Heat flux through heat sink base area [W/m^2 or W/cm^2]
q_c''	Critical heat flux for uniformly heated circular channel
q_{eff}''	Heat flux based on total base area of micro-channel heat sink
$q_{eff,c}''$	Critical heat flux based on total base area of micro-channel heat sink
q_p''	Heat flux based on micro-channel's three-sided heated perimeter
$q_{p,c}''$	Critical heat flux based on micro-channel's three-sided heated perimeter
Re	Reynolds number based on tube diameter
Re_{Dh}	Reynolds number based on channel hydraulic diameter
S	Correlation constant
T	Temperature
T^*	Dimensionless temperature
T_{tc}	Measured copper block temperature
T_w	Base wall temperature of micro-channel heat sink
$\overline{T_w}$	Mean base wall temperature of micro-channel heat sink
ΔT_{sub}	Subcooling
tc	Temperature measurement points inside heat sink block
TS	Test section
U	Mean layer velocity
u	Mean fluid velocity
v	Specific volume [m^3/kg]
W_{ch}	Micro-channel width
W_w	Half-width of copper sidewall
We	Weber number
X	Martinelli parameter
X_{vt}	Martinelli parameter for laminar liquid – turbulent vapor flow

X_{vv}	Martinelli parameter for laminar liquid – laminar vapor flow
x	Coordinate defines in Fig. II.2.4; Axial distance (Part III)
x'	Apparent quality
x_e	Thermodynamic equilibrium quality
$x_{e,in}^*$	Pseudo-inlet thermodynamic equilibrium quality with properties based on outlet pressure, $(h_{in} - h_{f,o})/h_{fg,o}$
x_o	Outlet thermodynamic equilibrium quality, $(h_o - h_{f,o})/h_{fg,o}$
y	Coordinate defined in Fig. II.2.4
Y^+	Dimensionless thickness of homogeneous two-phase layer
z	Stream-wise coordinate
Z^+	Dimensionless axial distance
z_{hy}^+	Dimensionless length

Greek Symbols

α	Void fraction
β	Ratio of channel depth to width
δ	Thickness of homogeneous two-phase layer
η	Fin efficiency
λ	Dimensionless number in Lee and Lee correlation
μ	Viscosity
ρ	Density
σ	Surface tension
σ_c	Contraction area ratio
σ_e	Expansion area ratio
τ	Shear stress
ϕ	Two-phase pressure drop multiplier
φ	Volumetric concentration of nanoparticles (Part III)
ψ	Dimensionless number in Lee and Lee correlation
ω	Volumetric quality

Superscript

–

Two-phase; Phase averaged property

Subscripts

3

Three-sided wall heating

4

Four-sided wall heating

 A, a

Acceleration

 ad

Adiabatic

 b

Micro-channel base wall

 bd

Bubble departure from wall

 bf

Base fluid

 c

Critical heat flux; contraction; Halfway location along micro-channel

 ch

Channel

 cor

Correlation

 D

Diameter

 e

Expansion; Thermodynamic equilibrium

 exp

Experimental

 F

Frictional pressure drop component

 f

Saturated liquid; frictional

 fg

Property difference between saturated vapor and saturated liquid

 fo

Liquid only in entire channel

 g

Saturated vapor

 H

Homogeneous layer

 $HFE\ 7100$

HFE 7100 base fluid

 i

Interface between homogeneous two-phase layer and liquid

 in

Channel inlet

 L

Micro-channel length

 lam

Laminar

 m

Bulk fluid

 nb

Nucleate boiling

<i>nf</i>	Nanofluid
<i>ONB</i>	Onset of nucleate boiling
<i>out</i>	Channel outlet
<i>p</i>	Solid particles
<i>pred</i>	Predicted
<i>s</i>	Solid (copper)
<i>sat</i>	Saturated
<i>sc</i>	Subcooled
<i>sp</i>	Single-phase
<i>sub</i>	Subcooling
<i>tc</i>	Thermocouple
<i>tp</i>	Two-phase
<i>tot</i>	Total
<i>tran</i>	Transition from macro- to micro-channel flow
<i>tur</i>	Turbulent
<i>w</i>	Channel wall condition
<i>x</i>	Local condition (Part III).

ABSTRACT

PART I. MICRO-CHANNEL HEAT SINK FOR DIRECT REFRIGERATION COOLING

While most recently electronic cooling studies have been focused on removing the heat from high-power-density devices, the present study also explores means of greatly decreasing the device operating temperature. This is achieved by incorporating a micro-channel heat sink as an evaporator in an R134a refrigeration loop. This system is capable of maintaining device temperatures below 55 °C while dissipating in excess of 100 W/cm².

The micro-channels were formed by machining 231 μm wide × 713 μm deep grooves into the surface of a copper block. Experiments were performed with refrigerant R134a that spanned the following conditions: inlet pressure of $P_{in} = 1.44 - 6.60$ bar, mass velocity of $G = 127 - 654$ kg/m²s, inlet quality of $x_{e,in} = 0.001 - 0.25$, outlet quality of $x_{e,out} = 0.49 - \text{superheat}$, and heat flux of $q'' = 31.6 - 93.8$ W/cm².

Two-phase pressure drop was measured across a micro-channel heat sink that served as an evaporator in a refrigeration cycle. Predictions of the homogeneous equilibrium flow model and prior separated flow models and correlations yielded relatively poor predictions of pressure drop. A new correlation scheme is suggested that incorporates the effect of liquid viscosity and surface tension in the separated flow model's two-phase pressure drop multiplier. This scheme shows excellent agreement with the R134a data as well as previous micro-channel water data. An important practical finding from this study is that the throttling valve in a refrigeration cycle offers significant stiffening to the system, suppressing the large pressure oscillations common to micro-channel heat sinks.

Boiling heat transfer coefficients were measured by controlling heat flux ($q'' = 15.9 - 93.8$ W/cm²) and vapor quality ($x_e = 0.26 - 0.87$) over a broad range of mass velocity. While prior studies point to either nucleate boiling or annular film evaporation

(convective flow boiling) as dominant heat transfer mechanisms in small channels, the present study shows heat transfer is associated with different mechanisms for low, medium and high qualities. Nucleate boiling occurs only at low qualities ($x_e < 0.05$) corresponding to very low heat fluxes, and high fluxes produce medium quality ($0.05 < x_e < 0.55$) or high quality ($x_e > 0.55$) flows dominated by annular film evaporation. Because of the large differences in heat transfer mechanism between the three quality regions, better predictions are possible by dividing the quality range into smaller ranges corresponding to these flow transitions. A new heat transfer coefficient correlation is recommended which shows excellent predictions for both R134a and water.

The systematic approach adopting the newly developed correlations reveals that while higher heat transfer coefficients are possible with greater mass velocities, those conditions are typically associated with wet compression corresponding to evaporator exit quality below unity and liquid entrainment at the compressor inlet. Wet compression compromises compressor performance and reliability as well as refrigeration cycle efficiency and therefore must be minimized by maintaining only slightly superheated conditions at the compressor inlet, or using a wet-compression-tolerant compressor. A parametric study of the effects of channel geometry on heat sink performance points to channels with small width and high aspect ratio as yielding superior thermal performance corresponding to only a modest penalty in pressure drop.

PART II. MICRO-CHANNEL HEAT SINK FOR INDIRECT REFRIGERATION COOLING

A new cooling scheme is proposed where the primary working fluid is pre-cooled to low temperature using an indirect refrigeration cooling system. The cooling performance was explored using HFE 7100 as working fluid and four different micro-channel sizes. High-speed video imaging was employed to help explain the complex interrelated influences of channel geometries and flow conditions on cooling performance. Unlike most prior two-phase flow studies, which involved annular film evaporation due

to high void fraction, the low coolant temperatures used in this study produced subcooled flow boiling conditions.

Increasing liquid subcooling decreased two-phase pressure drop because of decreased void fraction, caused by strong condensation at bubble interfaces, as well as decreased likelihood of bubble coalescence. It is shown macro-channel subcooled boiling pressure drop and heat transfer correlations are unsuitable for micro-channel flows.

A new model is proposed to predict the pressure drop characteristics of subcooled two-phase micro-channel heat sinks. This model depicts the subcooled flow as consisting of a homogeneous two-phase flow layer near the heated walls of the micro-channel and a second subcooled bulk liquid layer. Mass, momentum and energy control volume conservation equations are combined to predict flow characteristics for thermodynamic equilibrium qualities below zero. The model shows good predictions of pressure drop data for different mass velocities and subcoolings for four different micro-channel sizes.

The high subcooling greatly reduced both bubble departure diameter and void fraction, and precluded flow pattern transitions beyond the bubbly regime. CHF was triggered by vapor blanket formation along the micro-channel walls despite the presence of abundant core liquid. CHF increased with increasing mass velocity and/or subcooling and decreasing hydraulic diameter for a given total mass flow rate. A premature type of CHF was caused by vapor backflow into the heat sink's inlet plenum at low mass velocities and small inlet subcoolings, and was associated with significant fluctuations in inlet and outlet pressure, as well as wall temperature. A systematic technique is developed to modify existing CHF correlations to more accurately account for features unique to micro-channel heat sinks, including rectangular cross-section, three-sided heating, and flow interaction between micro-channels.

PART III. ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF NANOFLUIDS FOR SINGLE-PHASE AND TWO-PHASE HEAT TRANSFER IN MICRO-CHANNELS

Experiments were performed to explore the micro-channel cooling benefits of water-based nanofluids containing small concentrations of Al_2O_3 . The high thermal conductivity of nanoparticles is shown to enhance the single-phase heat transfer coefficient, especially for laminar flow. Higher heat transfer coefficients were achieved mostly in the entrance region of micro-channels. However, the enhancement was weaker in the fully developed region, proving that nanoparticles have an appreciable effect on thermal boundary layer development. Higher concentrations also produced greater sensitivity to heat flux. Despite this enhancement, the overall cooling effectiveness of nanoparticles was quite miniscule because of the large axial temperature rise associated with the decreased specific heat for the nanofluid compared to the base fluid. For two-phase cooling, nanoparticles caused catastrophic failure by depositing into large clusters near the channel exit due to localized evaporation once boiling commenced. These and other practical disadvantages bring into question the overall merit of using nanofluids in micro-channel heat sinks.

PART I. MICRO-CHANNEL HEAT SINK FOR DIRECT REFRIGERATION COOLING

I.1 INTRODUCTION

I.1.1 Two-phase Pressure Drop in Micro-Channel

Two-phase pressure drop has been the subject of extensive research spanning many decades. Starting in the 1940s, researchers were concerned with developing predictive pressure drop models and correlations for mostly traditional industries such as steam and nuclear power generation, chemical and petroleum, desalination, refrigeration and air conditioning, etc.

With the recent emergence of new applications demanding high-heat-flux dissipation from small areas, the validity of popular pressure drop models and correlations became an open question. These new cooling demands were brought about mostly by the remarkable technological advances in the electronics industry. Since a key measure of improvement in device performance is the ability to integrate the largest number of electronic components in a given surface area, those advances have yielded unprecedented increases in device heat dissipation.

Cooling of electronic devices is fundamentally different from that of most conventional applications since not only does the heat need to be removed from the device surface, but the device must also be maintained at a relatively low temperature. Compounding this problem is the existence of an appreciable thermal resistance between the device and coolant, which is the result of various intermediate layers that are required for electronic packaging and interconnect. To compensate for the ever-increasing heat flux, maintaining an acceptable device temperature therefore requires simultaneously (1) enhancing the convective heat transfer coefficient and (2) reducing the coolant

temperature. Those concerns are key drivers behind the recent interest in using refrigerant-cooled micro-channel heat sinks.

A micro-channel heat sink possesses many unique attributes that are ideally suited for electronics cooling. Those include superior cooling characteristics, compactness, and minimal coolant usage, especially when the coolant changes phase inside the heat sink. Phase change capitalizes upon the coolant's latent heat of vaporization to absorb and ultimately dissipate a larger amount of heat than a single-phase coolant. Furthermore, the heat is removed at a fairly constant temperature that is dictated largely by the coolant's saturation temperature. Unlike single-phase heat sinks that compensate for the large heat removal by incurring an appreciable stream-wise temperature rise in both the coolant and heat sink, phase change maintains better temperature uniformity in the heat sink and aids in preventing local hot spots in the device surface.

However, two-phase micro-channel heat sinks are not without drawbacks. The small hydraulic diameter of a micro-channel can lead to appreciable pressure drop and corresponding increase in power consumption, which is undesirable in electronic systems. Therefore, a strong understanding of the relationship between pressure drop, flow rate and heat flux is of paramount importance to micro-channel heat sink design.

Many of the two-phase pressure drop models and correlations used in industry today stem from the pioneering Lockhart-Martinelli (1949) formulation, which has been modified by many investigators in pursuit of better predictions for macro-channels (e.g., Friedel [Collier and Thome (1994)], Chisholm (1973)). However, recent studies have shown this formulation produces poor predictions when attempted with small channels, suggesting different flow characteristic must be prevalent in the smaller channels.

Bowers and Mudawar (1994) were the first to provide a systematic assessment of the unique attributes of pressure drop across micro-channel heat sinks. To examine the influence of hydraulic diameter, they compared the pressure drop for refrigerant R113 in both mini-channel ($d = 2.54$ mm) and micro-channel ($d = 510$ μ m) heat sinks. Using the homogeneous equilibrium model, they pointed out the serious drawbacks of a very small hydraulic diameter caused by the excessive pressure drop associated with acceleration of the two-phase mixture. Mishima and Hibiki (1996) modified the two-phase multiplier

in the Lockhart-Martinelli with a new parameter to improve pressure drop prediction for air-water flow in vertical capillary tubes with diameters of $d = 1 - 4$ mm. Triplett et al. (1999) investigated air-water flow in small circular tubes ($d = 1.1, 1.45$ mm) and triangular channels ($d_h = 1.09, 1.49$ mm). The homogeneous equilibrium model showed good predictions for the bubbly and slug flow regimes but not the annular, and the Friedel's correlation (based on the separated flow model) was less accurate than the homogeneous model. Tran et al. (2000) investigated two-phase flow of refrigerants R134a, R12, and R113 in small circular channels ($d = 2.46, 2.92$ mm) and a rectangular channel ($d_h = 2.40$ mm). Most separated flow models predicted pressure drop values that were smaller than measured. Therefore, they developed a new correlation to better account for the effects of surface tension and channel diameter. Lee and Lee (2001) modified the Lockhart-Martinelli two-phase multiplier with a new parameter they correlated from their own data for air-water flow in rectangular channels ($d_h = 0.784, 6.67$ mm). Zhang and Webb (2001) investigated two-phase flow of refrigerants R134a, R22 and R404a in parallel circular channels ($d = 2.13$ mm) and recommended a new pressure drop correlation based on the separated flow model. Kawahara et al. (2002) investigated water-nitrogen flow in a $100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ circular tube. They reported the homogeneous flow model generally overpredicted pressure drop data, while the separated flow model using a modified two-phase flow multiplier showed better agreement.

Recently, Qu and Mudawar (2002,2003) investigated the fundamental features of two-phase flow and heat transfer in a water-cooled micro-channel heat sink. Their work culminated in a comprehensive theoretical model which yielded good predictions of two-phase pressure drop and heat transfer.

The present study is an extension of recent efforts by Mudawar and co-workers to develop a comprehensive method for determining micro-channel heat sink pressure drop for coolants with drastically different thermophysical properties. New experiments were performed with R134a that were complimented by flow visualization. The heat sink was incorporated as an evaporator in a refrigeration cycle in an effort to achieve the aforementioned goals of high-flux removal while maintaining low surface temperatures. Using both the new R134a pressure drop data as well as Qu and Mudawar's earlier water

data, a new correlation scheme is recommended for two-phase pressure drop determination. This scheme is shown to yield far better accuracy than prior macro-channel and small channel correlations. Also discussed in this paper are various unique features of pressure drop in micro-channel evaporators and the suitability of refrigerant-cooled heat sinks to electronic cooling applications.

I.1.2 Boiling Heat Transfer in Micro-Channel

The pioneering work by Tuckerman and Pease (1981) in the early 1980s spawned unprecedented interest in the use of micro-channel heat sinks as a means for dissipating large amount of heat from small, high-flux devices in a variety of computer and aerospace applications. While their work was focused entirely on single-phase heat sinks, recent research efforts have shifted to two-phase heat sinks, which offer significant advantages compared to their single-phase counterparts. A key drawback of single-phase heat sinks is the large (and often detrimental) temperature gradient in the device resulting from a steam-wise rise in the coolant temperature. Two-phase heat sinks capitalize upon latent heat exchange, which both increases the convective heat transfer coefficient inside the heat sink and helps maintain a more uniform device surface temperature, dictated mostly by the coolant's saturation temperature.

Despite these attributes, dissipating very large heat fluxes can lead to unacceptably high device temperatures. This is due to both the convective resistance of the coolant itself, as well as the heat diffusion resistance associated with the metallic structure of the heat sink, device and intermediate bonding agent. Avoiding high temperatures in high-flux temperature-sensitive devices can be achieved by greatly reducing the temperature of the coolant, i.e. by refrigeration. A simple means to accomplishing this goal is to incorporate the heat sink as an evaporator in a standard refrigeration cycle. This is precisely the system examined in the present study.

A key challenge to implementing this cooling scheme is the relatively poor understanding of two-phase flow and heat transfer phenomena in a micro-channel, let

alone refrigerant-cooled heat sinks. The present study aims to explore the heat transfer characteristics as well as the pressure drop characteristics of R134a in a two-phase heat sink.

The dominant heat transfer mechanism inside a small channel remains an open question. Dispute over this issue is evident in several recent studies concerning boiling heat transfer in mini- and micro-channels. Table 1.1 shows researchers are divided into two groups. The first shares the view that nucleate boiling is dominant and therefore dictates overall heat transfer inside the channel, citing the local heat transfer coefficient is dependent on heat flux, but not mass velocity or quality [Lazarek and Black (1982), Wambsganss et al. (1993), Tran et al. (1996), Bao et al. (2000), Mehendale and Jacobi (2000), Yu et al. (2002)]. The second group shares the observation that the local heat transfer coefficient is a function of quality and mass velocity in addition to wall heat flux [Kew and Cornwell (1997), Ravigururajan (1998), Yan and Lin (1998), Lee and Lee (2001), Lin et al (2001), Warriar et al. (2002), Wen et al. (2004), Huo et al. (2004)]. Experimental results by this second group generally show the local heat transfer coefficient decreases with increasing quality. This points to annular film evaporation (sometimes called convective boiling) as the dominant heat transfer mechanism.

Table I.1.1 Summary of prior relevant mini- and micro-channel studies.

Author(s)	Geometry	Fluid(s)	q'' [W/cm ²]	Flow Rate	x_c	h_{fp} [W/m ² K]	Remarks
Lazarek & Black (1982) [3]	$d = 3.1$ mm $L = 12.3, 24.6$ cm semi-circular Single	R113	1.4 - 38.0	125 - 750 kg/m ² s	< 0 - 0.60	2,000 - 10,000	$h_{fp} = f(q'')$ nucleate boiling dominant h_{fp} independent of x_c, G
Wambsganss et al. (1993) [4]	$d = 2.92$ mm $L = 36.8$ cm circular, single	R113	0.88 - 9.08	50 - 300 kg/m ² s	0 - 0.90	1,500 - 7,000	$h_{fp} = f(q'')$ nucleate boiling dominant h_{fp} independent of x_c, G
Bower & Mudawar (1994) [5]	$d = 2.54, 0.51$ mm $L = 2.86$ cm circular parallel 17 micro, 3 mini	R113	3 - 256	45, 64 ml/min	< 0 - CHF		
Tran et al. (1996) [6]	$d = 2.46$ mm (circ.) $d_o = 2.40$ mm (rect.) $L = 87.0$ cm single	R12	3.6 - 12.9	44 - 832 kg/m ² s	0 - 0.96	2,000 - 10,000	$h_{fp} = f(q'')$ nucleate boiling dominant h_{fp} independent of x_c, G

Table I.1.1 continued.

Author(s)	Geometry	Fluid(s)	q'' [W/cm ²]	Flow Rate	x_c	h_{tp} [W/m ² K]	Remarks
Kew & Cornwell (1997) [7]	$d = 1.39 - 3.69$ mm $L = 50.0$ cm circular, single	R141b	0.97 - 9.0	188 - 1480 kg/m ² s	< 0 - 0.95	1,000 - 7,000	$h_{tp} = f(q'', x_c)$ h_{tp} increases with x_c nucleate and convective boiling important
Ravigururajan (1998) [8]	$d_o = 0.425$ mm $L = 2.052$ cm rectangular 54 parallel	R124	8.0 - 65.0	75 - 250 ml/min	0 - 0.5	2,000 - 25,000	$h_{tp} = f(q'', x_c)$ h_{tp} decreases with x_c
Yan & Lin (1998) [9]	$d = 2.0$ mm $L = 10.0$ cm circular, 28 parallel	R134a	0.5 - 2.0	50 - 200 kg/m ² s	0.1 - 0.90	2,000 - 6,000	$h_{tp} = f(q'', x_c, T_{sat})$
Bao et al. (2000) [10]	$d = 1.95$ mm $L = 27.0$ cm circular, single	R11, R123	0.5 - 20.0	50 - 1800 kg/m ² s	< 0 - 0.90	3,000 - 17,000	$h_{tp} \propto q''^{0.735}$ nucleate boiling dominant h_{tp} independent of x_c , G

Table I.1.1 continued.

Author(s)	Geometry	Fluid(s)	q'' [W/cm ²]	Flow Rate g/s	x_c	h_{fp} [W/m ² K]	Remarks
Mehendale & Jacobi (2000) [11]	$d_h = 0.8$ mm $L = 7.4$ cm rectangular 52 parallel	R134a	0 - 0.34	0 - 0.5	0.07 - 0.25	0 - 9,000	$h_{fp} = f(q'')$ nucleate boiling dominant h_{fp} independent of x_c , G
Lee & Lee (2001) [12]	$d_h = 0.784, 6.67$ mm $L = 30.0$ cm rectangular single	R113	0.3 - 1.58	50 - 200 kg/m ² s	0.15 - 0.75	1,000 - 5,000	$h_{fp} = f(x_c)$ convective boiling dominant h_{fp} increases with x_c , q'' effect minor
Lin, Kew & Cornwell (2001) [13]	$d = 1.1$ mm $L = 50.0$ cm circular, single	R141b	0.18 - 7.2	510 kg/m ² s	< 0 - 1.0	1,000 - 6,000	$h_{fp} = f(q'', x_c)$ nucleate and convective boiling important
Yu et al. (2002) [14]	$d = 2.98$ mm $L = 91.0$ cm circular, single	Water- ethylene glycol	10.0 - 30.0	50 - 200 kg/m ² s	0 - 1.0	8,000 - 42,000	$h_{fp} = f(q'')$ nucleate boiling dominant h_{fp} independent of x_c , G

Table I.1.1 continued.

Author(s)	Geometry	Fluid(s)	q'' [W/cm ²]	Flow Rate kg/m ² s	x_c	h_{cp} [W/m ² K]	Remarks
Warrier et al. (2002) [15]	$d_o = 0.75$ mm $L = 30.74$ cm rectangular 5 parallel	FC84	0 - 5.99	557 - 1600	0.03 - 0.55		$h_{cp} = f(q'', x_c)$
Wen et al. (2004) [16]	$d_h = 1.33$ mm $L = 28.0, 24.8$ cm rectangular single	Water	2.6 - 16.0	57 - 211	< 0 - 0.3	14,000 - 29,000	$h_{cp} \propto q''^{0.44}$ nucleate and convective boiling important
Huo et al. (2004) [17]	$d = 2.01, 4.26$ mm circular, single	R134a	1.3 - 15.0	100 - 500	0 - 0.9	8,000 - 42,000	$h_{cp} = f(q'', x_c)$ nucleate and convective boiling important

Table I.1.2 Contrasting features of present study compared with prior small channel boiling studies.

	Present Study	Most Prior Studies
Application	Compact heat sink(cold plate)	Compact heat exchanger
Channel geometry	231 μm x 713 μm $L = 2.53$ cm	d_h mostly > 1 mm $L \gg 10$ cm
Heat flux	High	Low
Input heat flux	Uniform across flat surface	By external convection
Ratio of acceleration to total pressure drop	20 ~ 45%	Small to negligible
Working fluid	Environmentally-friendly refrigerant	Ozone-depleting refrigerants

The discrepancy between the two groups may be explained by the different coolants, operating conditions and channel sizes used by different investigators yielding different dominant mechanisms. This important issue will be discussed later in this paper.

As indicated earlier, the primary purpose of the present paper is to explore the two-phase heat transfer characteristics of a refrigerant-cooled micro-channel heat sink. Table 1.2 points out the unique focus of this study compared to prior small channel refrigerant studies. While much of the exiting refrigeration literature concerns long ($L > 10$ cm) mini-channels ($d > 2$ mm), the present study concerns a short heat sink ($L = 25.27$ mm) utilizing parallel micro-channels (231 μm x 713 μm). Furthermore, the heat sink examined in this study serves as a high-heat-flux evaporator (cold plate for electronic or power devices) subjected to a fairly uniform heat flux, while the vast majority of prior small-channel refrigeration research concerns mostly low heat flux evaporators that are heated by external convection. It is a primary goal of the present study to develop a fundamental understanding of dominant mechanisms, and recommend an accurate method for predicting the heat transfer performance of this unique cooling scheme.

I.1.3 System Implementation

While thermal management of high-heat-flux electronic devices has attracted significant attention in recent years, much of the published work concerns mainly the heat removal requirements. The heat is typically removed by a liquid coolant and ultimately rejected to ambient air. As heat flux levels continue to escalate, there is increasing concern over the ability to maintain acceptable device temperatures for an essentially fixed ambient air temperature. This is because of the appreciable thermal resistance comprised of not only the coolant's convection resistance, but the conduction resistance across the device itself and any intermediate bond/solder layers. This points to refrigeration cooling as an effective means for greatly reducing the coolant's temperature and therefore maintaining acceptable device temperatures when dissipating very high heat fluxes. The present study concerns the development of a liquid cooling scheme that capitalizes upon the merits of both high-performance micro-channel flow boiling and refrigeration cooling.

Many researchers have explored the merits of micro-channel heat sinks and demonstrated a notable enhancement in cooling performance compared to other liquid cooling schemes. This was quite evident from an early study by Tuckerman and Pease (1981) who used a single-phase liquid-cooled heat sink. But while their heat sink was quite effective at dissipating the heat, its reliance on sensible heating the coolant resulted in detrimental stream-wise temperature gradients along both coolant and heat sink. Reducing these gradients by increasing the coolant's flow rate was complicated by the appreciable pressure drop associated with micro-channel flow. Bowers and Mudawar (1994) showed how better temperature uniformity can be realized using two-phase micro-channel heat sinks, which remove the heat more isothermally by latent instead of sensible heat.

With its abundance, low cost and superior thermophysical properties, water has been the coolant of choice for many single-phase and two-phase micro-channel heat sink applications [Qu and Mudawar (2003)]. Its drawbacks, however, are (1) poor dielectric

properties, which can produce arcing/shorting in electronic devices, and (2) high saturation temperature. At one atmosphere, the saturation temperature of water (100 °C) precludes maintaining acceptable device temperatures. Lower saturation temperatures are possible at sub-atmospheric pressure, but the low pressures necessary to maintaining acceptable temperatures are known to initiate undesirable bubble nucleation effects [Mikic et al. (1970)], let alone the increased likelihood of air inclusion due to any system leaks.

Dielectric fluorochemical coolants such as FC-72, FC-87 and PF-5052 circumvent the aforementioned arcing/shorting problem. They also possess lower saturation temperatures at one atmosphere. Unfortunately their thermophysical properties are far inferior to those of water, and achieving acceptable device temperatures requires implementing effective surface augmentation techniques and/or supplying the coolant at a relatively high mass velocity [Mudawar (2001)].

Refrigeration cooling resolves the high device temperature concerns as well as provides the added benefits of faster switching time (due to increased electron mobility) and therefore better device performance, as well as reduced current leakage [Schmidt (2000)]. Those combined advantages lead to the introduction of several commercial refrigeration cooled computer systems in last decade [Schmidt (2000)].

With a refrigeration system, the coolant's saturation temperature is greatly decreased, sometimes far below sub-freezing temperatures. However, refrigeration requires increasing operation pressure, which contributes both added cost and complexity to a cooling system.

A primary focus of the present study is to incorporate a two-phase micro-channel heat sink as an evaporator in a vapor compression refrigeration system. This study will utilize the newly developed pressure drop and two-phase heat transfer coefficient correlations to explore several fundamental thermal aspects of the heat sink that were passed over in past commercial trial. Examined here is the effectiveness of the heat sink at removing high heat fluxes while maintaining low device temperatures, as well as the complex relationship between device heat flux, device temperature and coolant operating

conditions in the evaporator, and means of optimizing operating conditions in pursuit of better overall cooling performance and sound refrigeration system operation.

I.1.4 Research Objectives

The present research aims to explore the hydraulic and thermal characteristics of a two-phase micro-channel heat sink incorporated as an evaporator in a refrigeration cooling system. The objectives of this study are as follows:

- Evaluate the existing two-phase pressure drop estimation models for micro-channel heat sink in refrigeration cooling application.
- Develop the new reliable correlation schemes to predict the two-phase pressure drop in micro-channel heat sink.
- Investigate the pressure drop characteristics in micro-channel heat sink as an evaporator in refrigeration cycle.
- Evaluate the existing both macro and micro scale boiling heat transfer correlations with experimental data obtained from the refrigerant micro-channel heat sink.
- Demonstrate the two-phase flow patterns inside refrigerant micro-channel heat sink and investigate the related flow physics.
- Derive the physically reasonable boiling heat transfer correlation for two-phase micro-channel heat sink.
- Make sure the predictability of newly suggested correlations for two-phase pressure drop and boiling heat transfer with the fluid of different features.

I.2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

I.2.1 Apparatus and Measurement Techniques

Figure I.2.1 shows the test facility constructed for this study resembled a conventional refrigeration cycle save for using the micro-channel evaporator. The working fluid used in this study, R134a, is an environmentally friendly non-ozone-depleting HFC refrigerant with overwhelming popularity in most domestic refrigeration and air conditioning applications. Vapor compression was achieved with a DC rotary compressor whose power was determined from its measured current and voltage input. Heat was rejected from the loop via a conventional fin-tube condenser fitted with a cross-flow fan. The fan speed was controlled with a variable voltage transformer that helped modulate the subcooling of the two-phase mixture exiting the condenser. Throttling from high to low pressure was achieved by a manual metering valve situated upstream of the micro-channel evaporator test section.

Figure I.2.2 shows the primary components of the test section: a transparent polycarbonate cover plate, a G-10 fiberglass housing, an oxygen-free copper micro-channel heat sink, three cartridge heaters, and a G-10 support plate. The micro-channels were formed by cutting 53 of $231\ \mu\text{m}$ wide and $713\ \mu\text{m}$ deep micro-slots into the $25.3\ \text{mm} \times 25.3\ \text{mm}$ top surface of the copper heat sink. The polycarbonate plastic (Lexan) cover formed the top surface for the micro-channels. The G-10 housing included upstream and downstream plenums to ensure uniform flow distribution between micro-channels and facilitate pressure and temperature measurement both upstream and downstream of the micro-channels. The copper heating block was encased in an insulating blanket to reduce heat loss to the ambient. Heat was supplied by the cartridge

heaters that were embedded beneath the micro-channels; these heaters were powered by a variable voltage transformer.

Two type-T thermocouples were inserted in the inlet and outlet plenums to measure fluid temperature at those locations. Another type-K thermocouple was inserted in the copper block halfway along the micro-channels. An absolute pressure transducer measured the inlet plenum pressure and a differential pressure transducer the pressure drop between the inlet and outlet plenums. Additional type-T thermocouples and absolute pressure transducers were located both downstream of the compressor and upstream of the throttling valve. A precision power meter connected to the cartridge heaters' variable voltage transformer was used to measure heat input to the coolant in the evaporator. All thermocouple and pressure transducer measurement signals were transferred to an NI-SCXI signal conditioner interfaced to data acquisition PC. The flow rate of R134a entering the micro-channel evaporator was measured by a glass rotameter situated downstream of the condenser, which also served as a visual indicator of liquid state at that location. Figure I.2.3 depicts photos of key components of the test facility.

The rotameter provided better than 2% accuracy in flow rate measurement. Errors in the pressure transducer and thermocouple measurements were less than 0.5% and $\pm 0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$, respectively. Heat loss from the heat sink was estimated at less than 4% of the electrical power input.

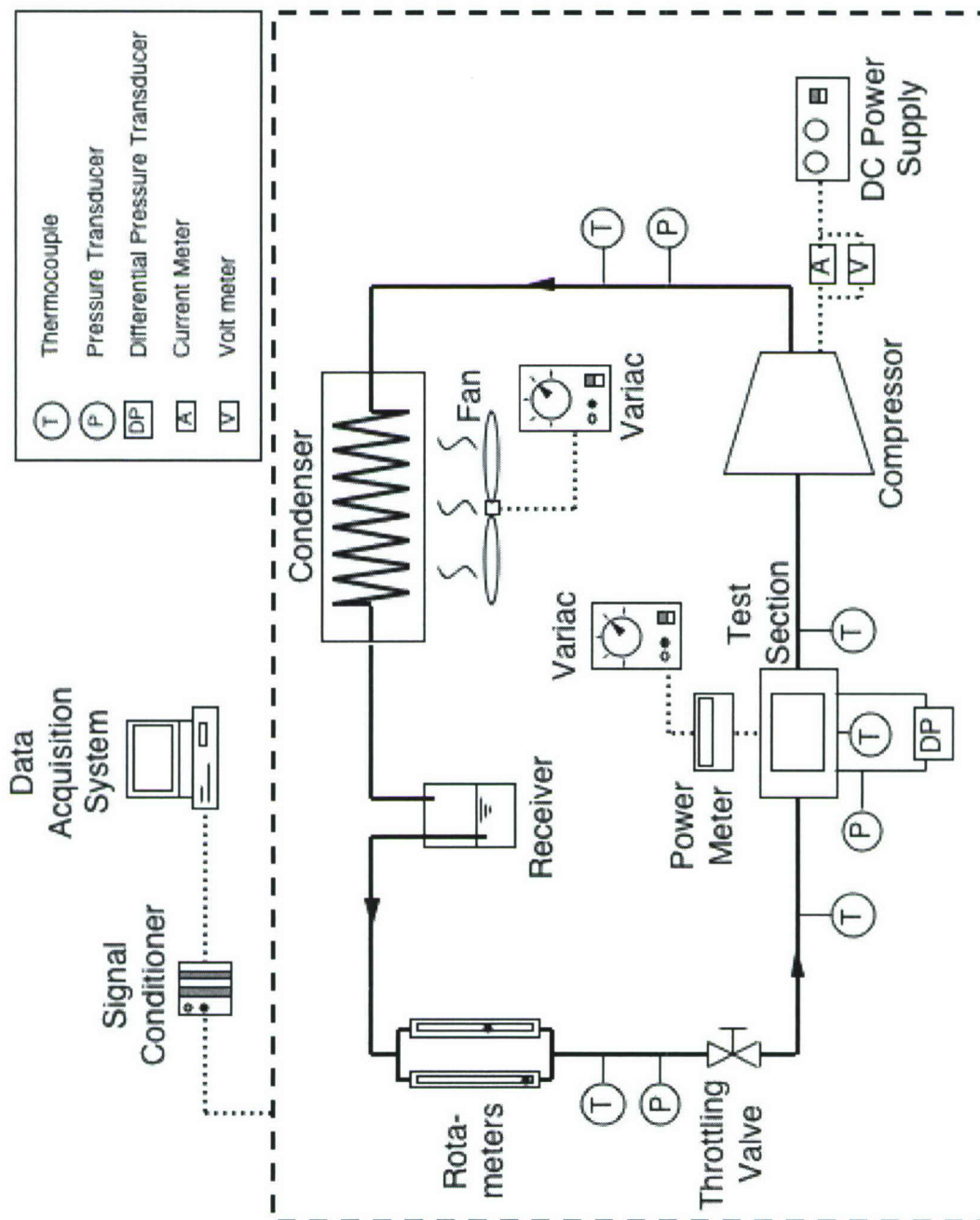


Figure I.2.1 Schematic of test loop.

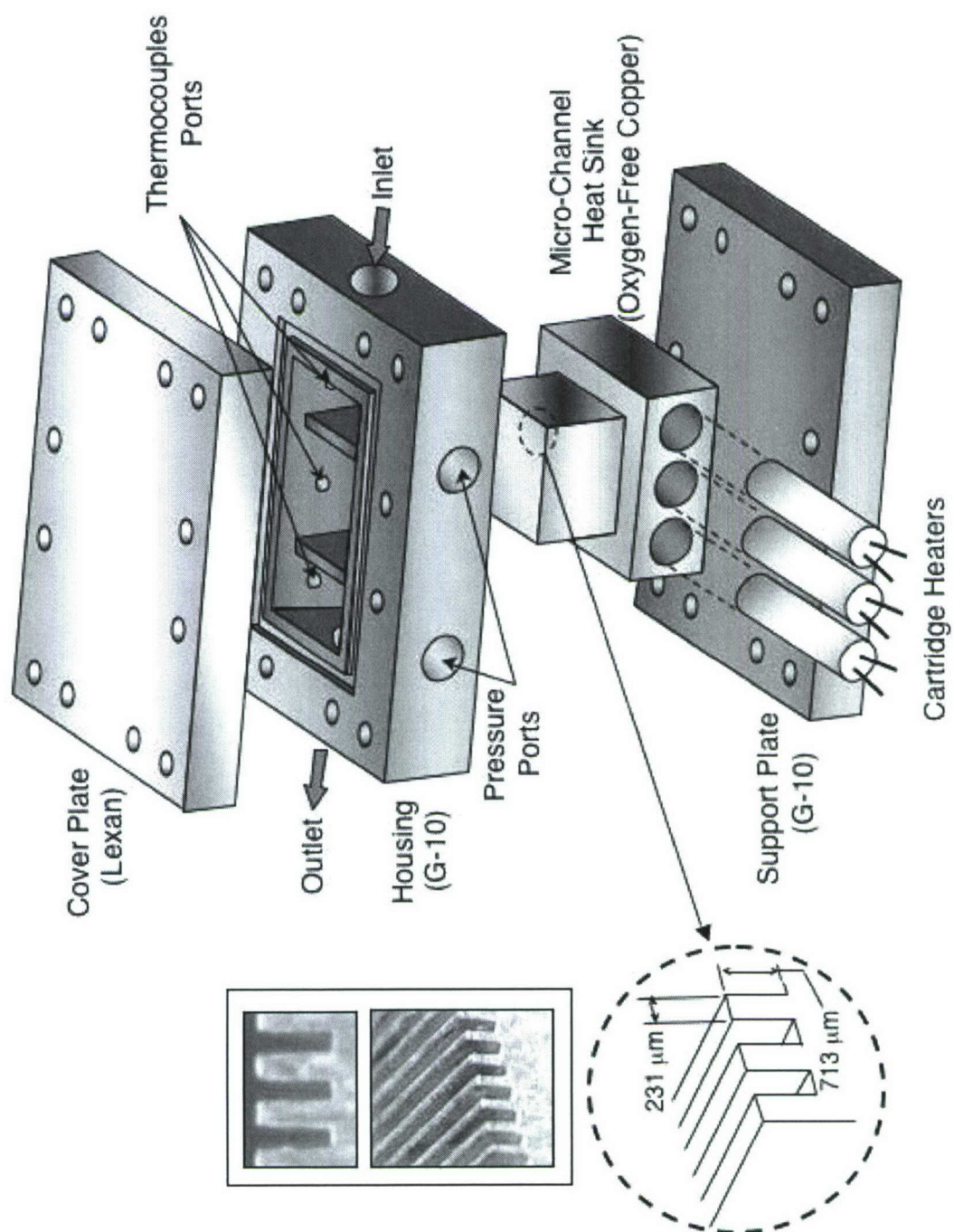


Figure I.2.2 Construction of micro-channel evaporator test section.

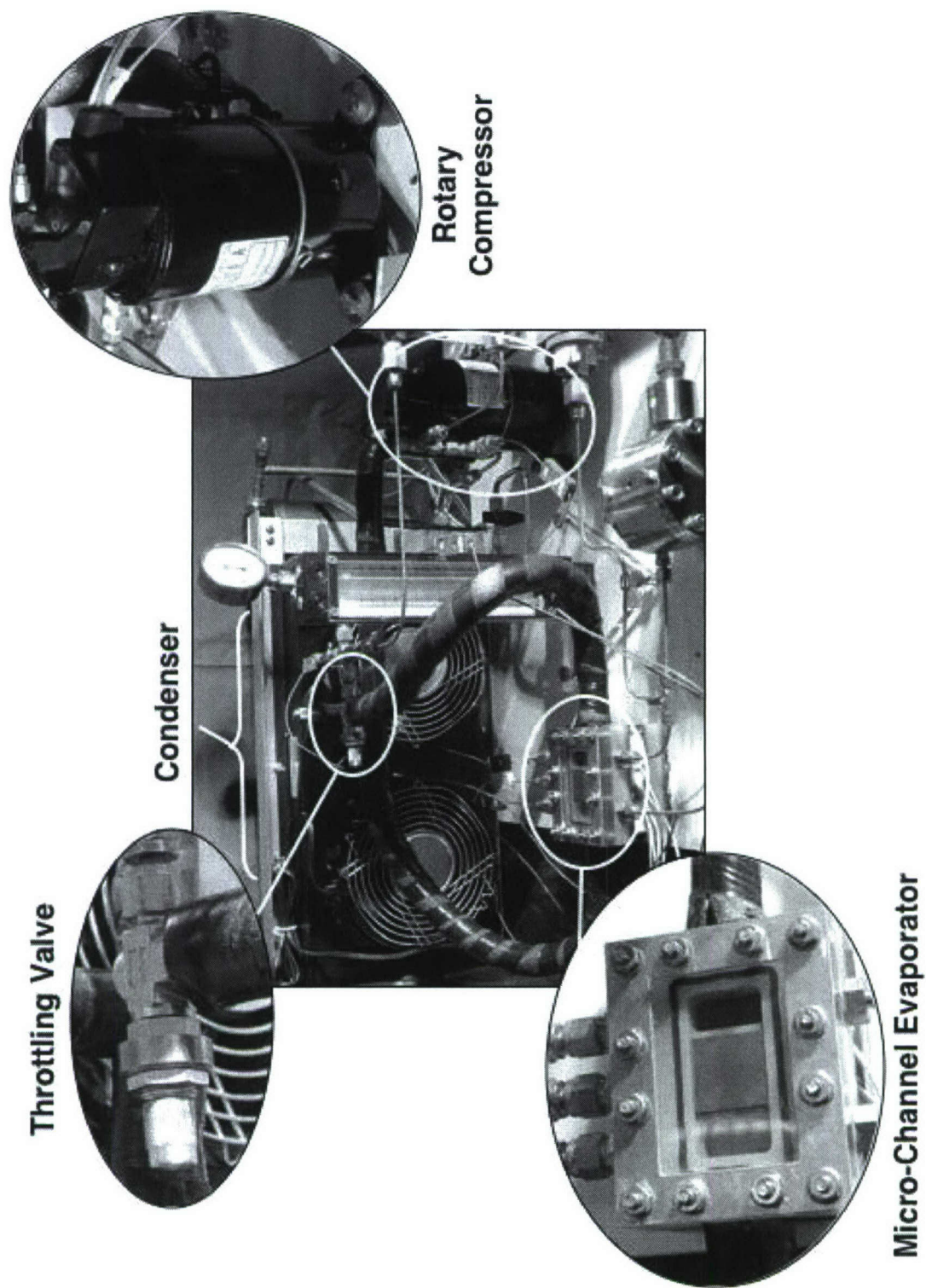


Figure I.2.3 Pictures of facility and key components.

I.2.2 Operating Conditions

The refrigerant left the compressor in superheated vapor state and was returned to subcooled liquid after passing through the condenser. Afterwards, the liquid was converted to a two-phase mixture by flashing across the throttling valve. The two-phase mixture entered the evaporator and was converted to superheated vapor before entering the compressor and repeating the cycle.

The mass flow rate of refrigerant entering the evaporator was calculated as the product of volumetric flow rate of liquid measured by the rotameter, and the density of liquid calculated from the temperature and pressure measurements. Since the throttling process is isenthalpic, the evaporator inlet enthalpy was determined from the liquid temperature and pressure measured downstream of the condenser. Using this enthalpy value and the evaporator measured inlet temperature or pressure provided accurate determination of the evaporator's inlet quality, $x_{e,in}$. The evaporator outlet quality was determined from the following energy balance:

$$x_{e,out} - x_{e,in} = \frac{4q''L}{Gd_h h_{fg}}. \quad (\text{I.2.1})$$

Experimental operating conditions spanned the following ranges: inlet quality of $x_{e,in} = 0.001 - 0.25$, outlet quality of $x_{e,out} = 0.49 - \text{superheat}$, mass velocity of $G = 127 - 654 \text{ kg/m}^2\text{s}$, heat flux of $q'' = 159 - 938 \text{ kW/m}^2$ ($15.9 - 93.8 \text{ W/cm}^2$), and inlet pressure of $P_{in} = 1.44 - 6.60 \text{ bar}$.

I.3 TWO-PHASE PRESSURE DROP AND FEATURES

I.3.1 Determination of Pressure Drop

The evaporator pressure drop measured by the differential pressure transducer includes the sudden contraction loss at the micro-channel inlet and sudden expansion recovery at the outlet. Within the micro-channels, the two-phase pressure drop consists of frictional and accelerational components. Should the two-phase mixture undergo complete conversion to vapor within the micro-channel, a pressure drop corresponding to pure vapor flow would also be incurred in the downstream region of the micro-channels. In this case, the total pressure drop between the upstream and downstream plenums can be expressed as

$$\Delta P_{tot} = \Delta P_c + (\Delta P_f + \Delta P_a)_{tp} + \Delta P_{sp,g} - \Delta P_e. \quad (I.3.1)$$

The contraction pressure loss and expansion recovery were determined from the following relations [Collier and Thome (1994)]:

$$\Delta P_c = \frac{G^2 v_f}{2} \left[\left(\frac{1}{C_c} - 1 \right)^2 + \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sigma_c^2} \right) \right] \left[1 + \frac{v_{fg} x_{e,in}}{v_f} \right] \quad (I.3.2)$$

$$\text{and } \Delta P_e = G^2 \sigma_e (1 - \sigma_e) v_f \left[1 + \frac{v_{fg} x_{e,out}}{v_f} \right]. \quad (I.3.3)$$

The contraction coefficient C_c is a function of the contraction ratio σ_c . If the refrigerant exits the micro-channels as pure vapor, the exit quality $x_{e,out}$ in the pressure recovery term should be set equal to unity.

When the refrigerant is completely converted into vapor within the micro-channel, the pressure drop for the vapor flow region can be determined from the following relation [Shah and London (1978), Incropera and Dewitt (2002)]:

$$\Delta P_{sp,g} = \frac{2L_{sp}}{d_h} f_{sp,g} G^2 v_g, \quad (I.3.4)$$

where

$$f_{sp,g} Re_g = 24 \left[1 - 1.3553\beta + 1.9467\beta^2 - 1.7012\beta^3 + 0.9564\beta^4 - 0.2537\beta^5 \right] \quad \text{for } Re_g < 2,000, \quad (I.3.5a)$$

$$f_{sp,g} = 0.079 Re_g^{-0.25} \quad \text{for } 2,000 < Re_g < 20,000, \quad (I.3.5b)$$

$$\text{and} \quad f_{sp,g} = 0.046 Re_g^{-0.2} \quad \text{for } 20,000 < Re_g. \quad (I.3.5c)$$

The remaining contributions to the evaporator pressure drop are the two-phase frictional and accelerational components. These are discussed in the next section.

I.3.2 Two Phase Pressure Drop Model

I.3.2.1 Homogeneous Equilibrium Model (HEM)

The homogeneous equilibrium model is based on the assumption that the two-phase mixture behaves as a pseudo single-phase fluid with mean properties that are weighted relative to vapor and liquid content, and that only latent heat may be exchanged between the phases. Property variations resulting from pressure changes along the micro-channel result in complicating terms that account for kinetic energy changes, flashing, and compressibility [Bowers and Mudawar (1994)]. The resulting pressure gradient may be expressed as

$$-\left(\frac{dP}{dz}\right)_{tp} = \frac{\frac{2f_{tp}}{d_h} G^2 (v_f + x_e v_{fg}) + \frac{4q'' G v_{fg}}{d_h [h_{fg} + G^2 v_{fg} \{x_e v_g + (1-x_e) v_f\}]}}{1 + G^2 \left\{ x_e \frac{dv_g}{dP} + (1-x_e) \frac{dv_f}{dP} \right\} \left[1 - \frac{G^2 v_{fg} \{x_e v_g + (1-x_e) v_f\}}{h_{fg} + G^2 v_{fg} \{x_e v_g + (1-x_e) v_f\}} \right] - \left[\frac{G^2 v_{fg} \left\{ x_e \frac{dh_g}{dP} + (1-x_e) \frac{dh_f}{dP} \right\}}{h_{fg} + G^2 v_{fg} \{x_e v_g + (1-x_e) v_f\}} \right]}.$$

$$(I.3.6)$$

The first term in the numerator of Eq. (I.3.6) is the frictional gradient and the second the accelerational. The denominator includes kinetic energy, flashing and compressibility terms. The two-phase pressure drop can be determined by integrating Eq. (I.3.6) numerically along the stream-wise direction.

$$\Delta P_{tp} = \int_0^{L_{tp}} - \left(\frac{dP}{dz} \right)_{tp} dz . \quad (I.3.7)$$

A key unknown in the two-phase pressure drop calculation using HEM is the two-phase friction factor, f_{tp} , which is a function of the two-phase Reynolds number

$$Re_{tp} = \frac{G d_h}{\mu_{tp}} . \quad (I.3.8)$$

Table I.3.1 shows the relations used to determine f_{tp} as well as several popular models of two-phase mixture viscosity, μ_{tp} .

Figure I.3.1 compares pressure drop predictions based on HEM (in addition to ΔP_c , $\Delta P_{sp,g}$ and ΔP_e) and each of the two-phase viscosity models with the experimental data. The Mean Absolute Error (MAE), defined as

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum \left[\frac{|\Delta P_{pred} - \Delta P_{exp}|}{\Delta P_{exp}} \times 100 \right] , \quad (I.3.9)$$

was used to estimate the accuracy of model predictions. Figure I.3.1 shows the HEM models yield appreciable deviation from the data. The trend predicted by the Cicchitti two-phase viscosity model, Fig. I.3.1 (c), is somewhat different from that of the other

Table I.3.1 Two-phase mixture viscosity models adopted in the homogeneous equilibrium flow model.

$f_{tp} Re_{tp} = 24 \left[1 - 1.3553\beta + 1.9467\beta^2 - 1.7012\beta^3 + 0.9564\beta^4 - 0.2537\beta^5 \right]$ <p style="text-align: center;">for $Re_{tp} < 2,000$</p> $f_{tp} = 0.079 Re_{tp}^{-0.25} \quad \text{for } 2,000 < Re_{tp} < 20,000$ $f_{tp} = 0.046 Re_{tp}^{-0.2} \quad \text{for } 20,000 < Re_{tp}$	
Author(s)	Two-Phase Mixture Viscosity Model
McAdams [Collier and Thome (1994)]	$\frac{1}{\mu_{tp}} = \frac{x_e}{\mu_g} + \frac{(1-x_e)}{\mu_f}$
Ackers [Yan and Lin (1998)]	$\mu_{tp} = \frac{\mu_f}{\left[(1-x_e) + x_e \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g} \right)^{0.5} \right]}$
Cicchitti et al. [Collier and Thome (1994)]	$\mu_{tp} = x_e \mu_g + (1-x_e) \mu_f$
Dukler [Collier and Thome (1994)]	$\mu_{tp} = \rho_{tp} \left[x_e v_g \mu_g + (1-x_e) v_f \mu_f \right]$
	$\mu_{tp} = \omega \mu_g + (1-\omega)(1+2.5\omega)\mu_f$
Beattie & Whalley (1982)	$\omega = \frac{x_e v_g}{v_f + x v_{fg}}$
Lin et al. (1991)	$\mu_{tp} = \frac{\mu_f \mu_g}{\left[\mu_g + x_e^{1.4} (\mu_f - \mu_g) \right]}$

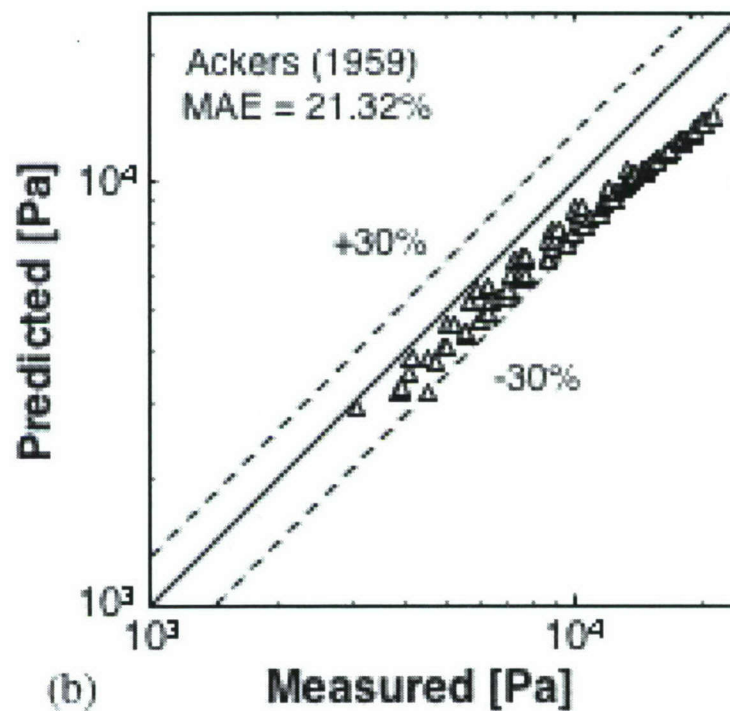
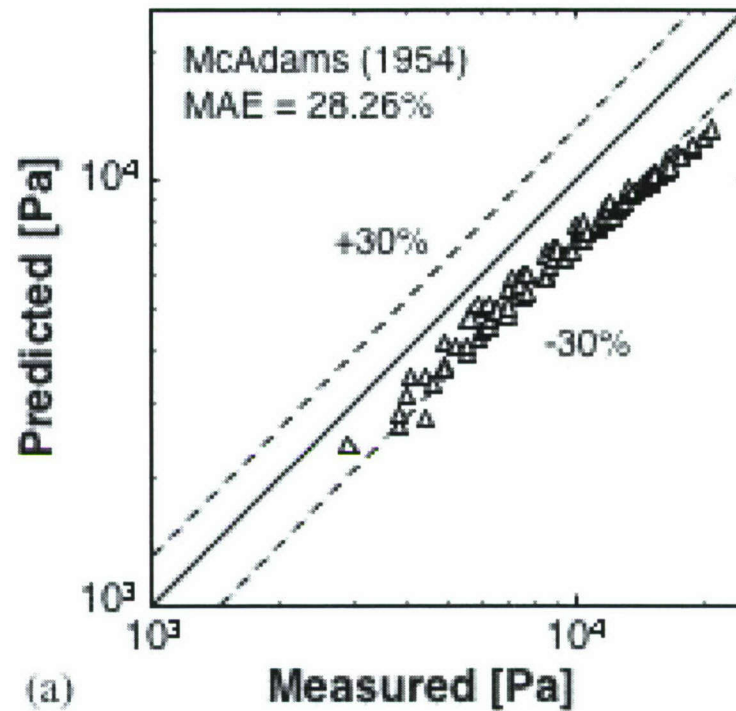


Figure I.3.1 Comparison of present R134a pressure drop data with homogeneous equilibrium model predictions based on two-phase viscosity models by (a) McAdams (1954), (b) Ackers (1959), (c) Cicchitti et al. (1960), (d) Dukler (1964), (e) Beattie and Whalley (1982), and (f) Lin et al. (1991).

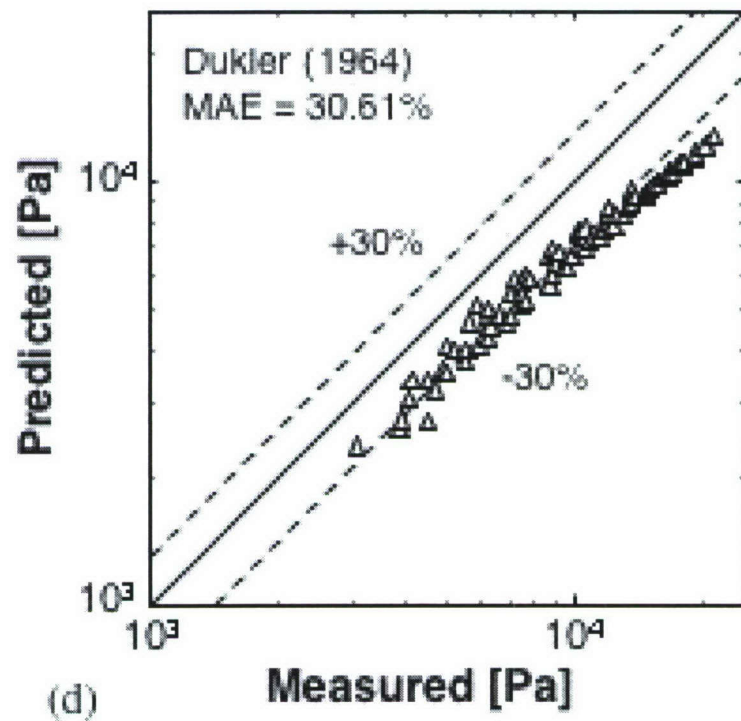
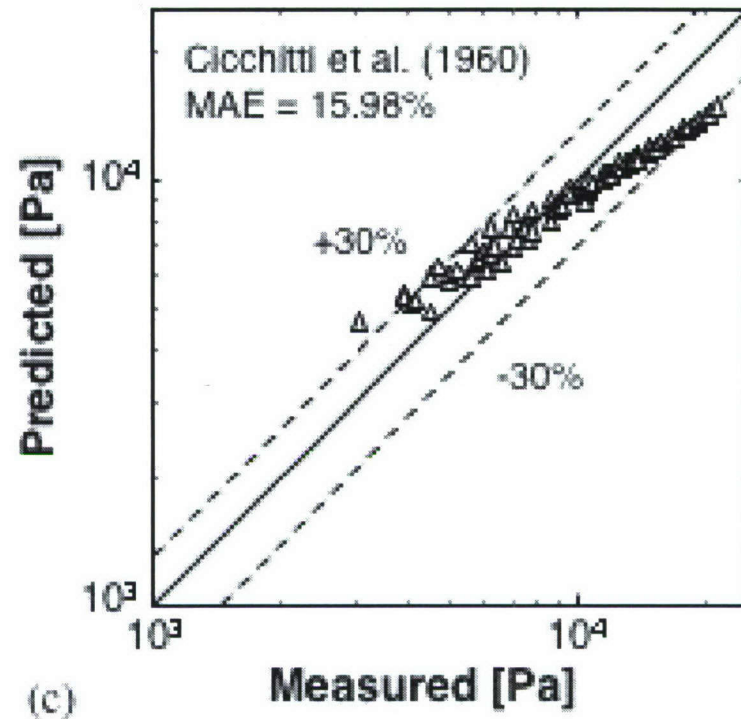


Figure I.3.1 continued.

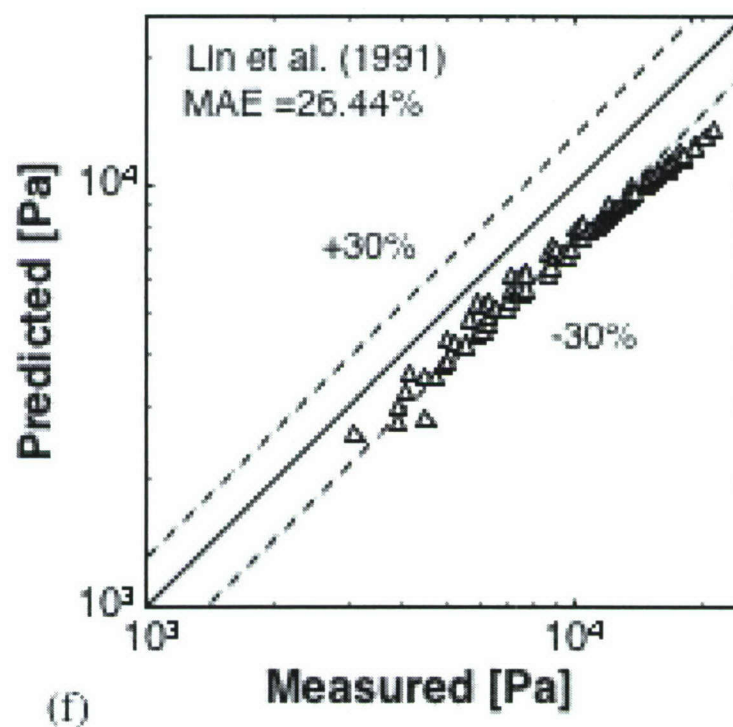
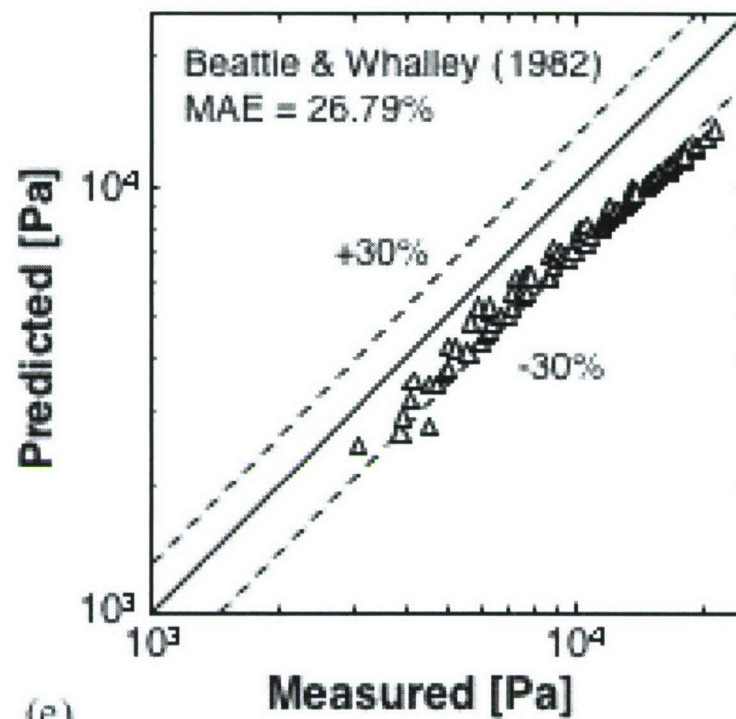


Figure I.3.1 continued.

models because this model is quality weighed and therefore provides significantly higher estimates of two-phase mixture viscosity at low quality than the other models. Since the low exit quality data are associated with smaller pressure drop, the Cicchitti model overpredicts these data but underpredicts the high exit quality data. The combination of overprediction at low quality and underprediction at high quality yields a relatively favorable MAE for the Ciccitti model. Nonetheless, Fig. I.3.1(c) shows this model does not capture the true pressure drop trend.

I.3.2.2 Separated Flow Model (SFM)

Table I.3.2 summarizes relations that were used to determine the two-phase frictional pressure drop based on the separated flow model, which include two popular macro-channel correlations (Lockhart-Martinelli and Friedel), and three recent small-channel correlations.

The accelerational two-phase pressure drop was expressed in terms of the evaporator's inlet and outlet conditions [Lockhart and Martinelli (1949)].

$$\Delta P_a = G^2 \left\{ \left[\frac{v_g x_{e,out}^2}{\alpha_{out}} + \frac{v_f (1 - x_{e,out})^2}{(1 - \alpha_{out})} \right] - \left[\frac{v_g x_{e,in}^2}{\alpha_{in}} + \frac{v_f (1 - x_{e,in})^2}{(1 - \alpha_{in})} \right] \right\}, \quad (I.3.10)$$

where the void fraction was determined from Zivi's (1964) popular relation

$$\alpha = \left[1 + \left(\frac{1 - x_e}{x_e} \right) \frac{v_f}{v_g} \right]^{-1}. \quad (I.3.11)$$

Figure I.3.2 compares pressure drop predictions of the different separated flow correlations with the experimental data. Interestingly, the predictions of the first two macro-channel correlations are not as poor as first thought. The small-channel correlations show appreciable deviation from the data.

Table I.3.2 Two-phase frictional pressure drop correlations based on separated flow model and corresponding MAE for R134a.

Author(s)	Remarks	Frictional Pressure Drop Correlation	MAE [%]
Lockhart & Martinelli (1949)	Fluids: Water, benzene, kerosene, Oil, etc.	$\Delta P_f = \frac{2G^2 L_{tp}}{d_h x_{e,out}} \int_{x_{e,in}}^{x_{e,out}} f_f (1 - x_e) v_f \phi_f^2 dx_e$ $\phi_f^2 = 1 + \frac{C}{X} + \frac{1}{X^2}, \quad X^2 = \left[\frac{(dp/dz)_f}{(dp/dz)_g} \right]$ $C = 5 \text{ (laminar liquid - laminar vapor),}$ $C = 10 \text{ (turbulent liquid - laminar vapor),}$ $C = 12 \text{ (laminar liquid - turbulent vapor),}$ $C = 20 \text{ (turbulent liquid - turbulent vapor)}$	14.90
	$d_h =$ 1.49 - 25.83 mm		
Friedel [Collier and Thome (1994)]	$d_h =$ > 4 mm	$\Delta P_f = \frac{2f_{fo} G^2 L_{tp} v_f}{d_h x_{e,out}} \int_{x_{e,in}}^{x_{e,out}} \phi_{fo}^2 dx_e$ $\phi_{fo}^2 = A_1 + \frac{3.24 A_2 A_3}{Fr_{tp}^{0.045} We_{tp}^{0.035}}$ $A_1 = (1 - x)^2 + x^2 \left(\frac{\rho_f f_{go}}{\rho_g f_{fo}} \right), \quad A_2 = x^{0.78} (1 - x)^{0.224},$ $A_3 = \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g} \right)^{0.91} \left(\frac{\mu_g}{\mu_f} \right)^{0.19} \left(1 - \frac{\mu_g}{\mu_f} \right)^{0.7}$ $Fr_{tp} = \frac{G^2}{g d_h \bar{\rho}}, \quad We_{tp} = \frac{G^2 d_h}{\bar{\rho} \sigma},$ $\bar{\rho} = \frac{1}{x_e v_g + (1 - x_e) v_f}$	24.00
Mishima & Hibiki (1996)	Fluid: Air-Water mixture $d_h =$ 1 - 4 mm	$\Delta P_f = \frac{2G^2 L_{tp}}{d_h x_{e,out}} \int_{x_{e,in}}^{x_{e,out}} f_f (1 - x_e) v_f \phi_f^2 dx_e$ $\phi_f^2 = 1 + \frac{C}{X} + \frac{1}{X^2}, \quad X^2 = \left[\frac{(dp/dz)_f}{(dp/dz)_g} \right]$ $C = 21[1 - \exp(-0.319 \cdot d_h)]; \quad d_h : [mm]$	34.37

Table I.3.2 continued.

Author(s)	Remarks	Frictional Pressure Drop Correlation	MAE [%]
Lee & Lee (2001)	Fluid: Air-Water mixture $d_h = 0.78, 6.67$ mm	$\Delta P_f = \frac{2G^2 L_{tp}}{d_h x_{e,out} x_{e,in}} \int_{x_{e,in}}^{x_{e,out}} f_f (1 - x_e) v_f \phi_f^2 dx_e$ $\phi_f^2 = 1 + \frac{C}{X} + \frac{1}{X^2}, X^2 = \left[\frac{(dp/dz)_f}{(dp/dz)_g} \right]$ $C = c_1 \lambda^{c_2} \psi^{c_3} Re_{fo}^{c_4}, \quad \lambda = \frac{\mu_f^2}{\rho_f \sigma d_h}, \quad \psi = \frac{\mu_f j_f}{\sigma}$ $c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 \text{ from Table 4 in Lee \& Lee (2001)}$	16.04
Zhang & Webb (2001)	Fluids: R134a, R22, R404a $d_h = 2.13$ mm	$\Delta P_f = \frac{2 f_{fo} G^2 L_{tp} v_f}{d_h x_{e,out} x_{e,in}} \int_{x_{e,in}}^{x_{e,out}} \phi_{fo}^2 dx_e$ $\phi_{fo}^2 = (1 - x_e)^2 + 2.87 x_e^2 \left(\frac{P}{P_c} \right)^{-1} + 1.68 x_e^{0.8} (1 - x_e)^{0.25} \left(\frac{P}{P_c} \right)^{-1.64}$	50.07

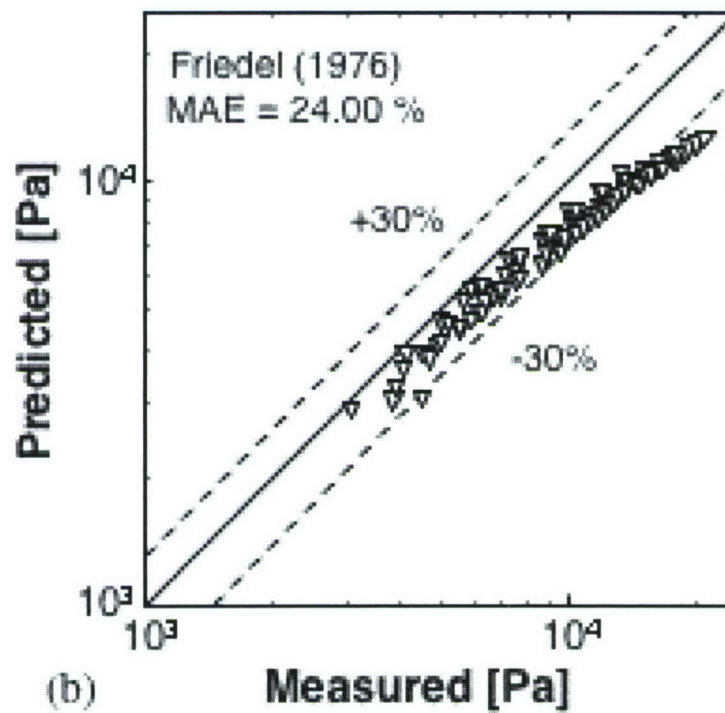
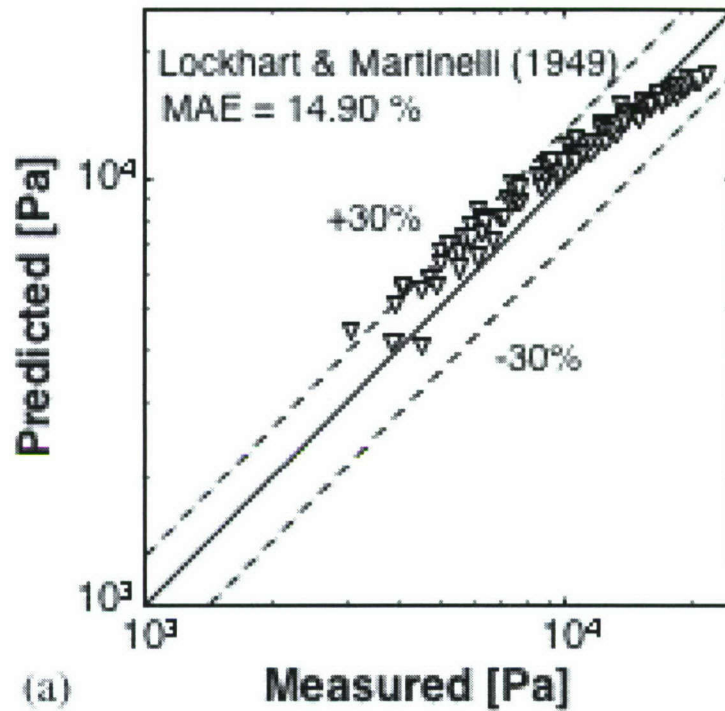


Figure I.3.2 Comparison of present R134a pressure drop data with separated flow model predictions based on correlations by (a) Lockhart and Martinelli (1949), (b) Friedel [Collier and Thome (1994)], (c) Mishima and Hibiki (1996), (d) Lee and Lee (2001), and (e) Zhang and Webb (2001).

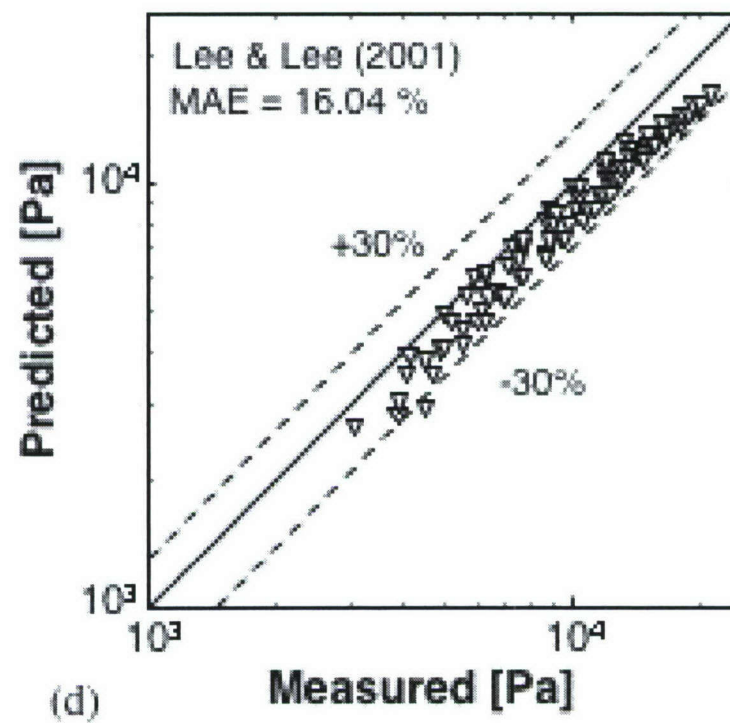
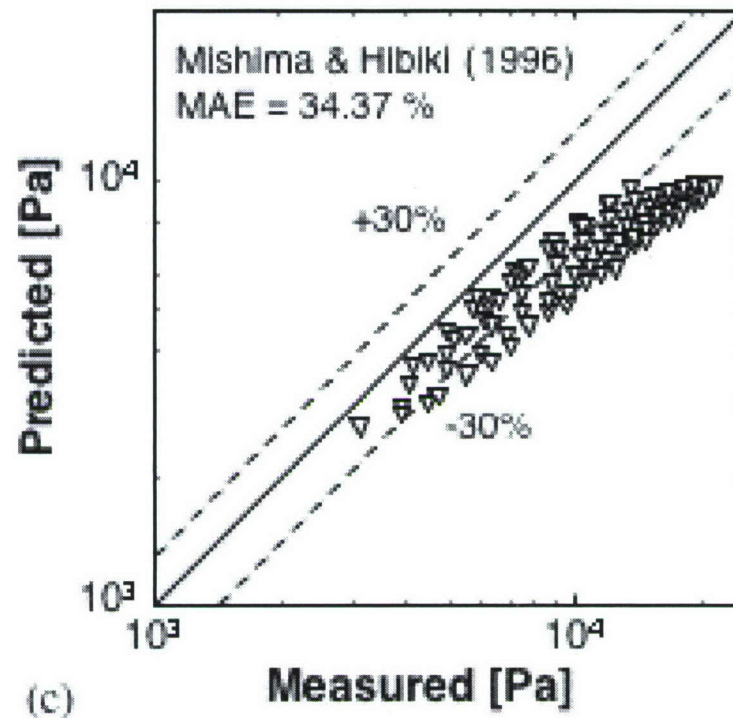


Figure I.3.2 continued.

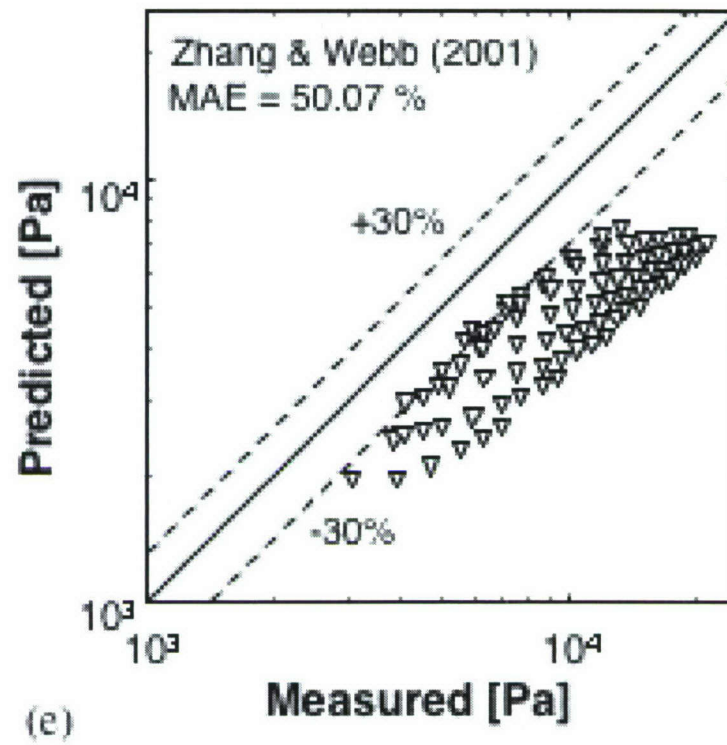


Figure I.3.2 continued.

I.3.3 New Correlation

A new approach was developed to improve the accuracy of pressure drop prediction in two-phase micro-channels. Since the bubbly and churn flow patterns are rarely detected in high-flux micro-channel flow [Kawahara et al. (2002), Qu and Mudawar (2003)], the separated flow model was deemed more appropriate than the homogeneous. This is especially the case with the present R134a experiments where the fluid entered the micro-channels as a two-phase mixture. Video imaging in the present study proved the flow was predominantly slug or annular, especially at high heat fluxes.

In both the slug and annular regimes, mass transfer by liquid breakup and deposition is highly influenced by surface tension. A new parameter is therefore sought to incorporate this effect in the separated flow model. Lee and Lee (2001) used the same rationale and suggested incorporating several dimensionless groups (see Table I.3.2) in the two-phase multiplier relation. As shown in Fig. I.3.2(d), their approach showed more favorable predictions of the present R134a data than the other two small-channel correlations.

A more mechanistic approach is adopted in the present study. It is assumed the added complexity of two-phase flow in a micro-channel is the net result of interactions between liquid inertia, liquid viscous force, and surface tension. Two key measures of these interactions are the Reynolds and Weber numbers based on liquid properties.

$$Re_{fo} = \frac{G d_h}{\mu_f} \quad (I.3.12a)$$

and
$$We_{fo} = \frac{v_f G^2 d_h}{\sigma} \quad (I.3.12b)$$

The two-phase pressure drop multiplier

$$\phi_f^2 = 1 + \frac{C}{X} + \frac{1}{X^2} \quad (I.3.13)$$

is modified with a new dimensionless parameter defined as

$$C = c_1 Re_{fo}^{c_2} We_{fo}^{c_3} \quad (I.3.14)$$

To enhance the predictive capability of the new correlation, both the present R134a data and prior micro-channel water data of Qu and Mudawar (2003) were

examined. Large differences between the thermophysical properties of the two coolants were deemed highly effective at broadening the application range of the new correlation. Another key difference between the two data sets is both the liquid and vapor flows are laminar for the water data, while low viscosity rendered the vapor flow turbulent for R134a. Typical micro-channel operating conditions rarely produce turbulent liquid flow. Therefore, two separate correlations were derived for C based on the flow states of the liquid and vapor,

$$C_{vv} = 2.16 Re_{fo}^{0.047} We_{fo}^{0.60} \quad (\text{laminar liquid-laminar vapor}) \quad (\text{I.3.15a})$$

$$C_{vt} = 1.45 Re_{fo}^{0.25} We_{fo}^{0.23} \quad (\text{laminar liquid-turbulent vapor}) \quad (\text{I.3.15b})$$

Notice the stronger effect of surface tension where both liquid and vapor are laminar.

Figure I.3.3(a) shows excellent agreement of the pressure drop predictions based on the new correlation with the R134a data, both in terms of MAE and general trend. The largest deviation is concentrated in the low mass flux and low heat flux region where both the heat loss (which influences the accuracy of the heat flux used in the pressure drop model) and the flow rate measurement uncertainty are greatest.

Figure I.3.3(b) shows the present correlation is also very effective at predicting the micro-channel water data of Qu and Mudawar (2003).

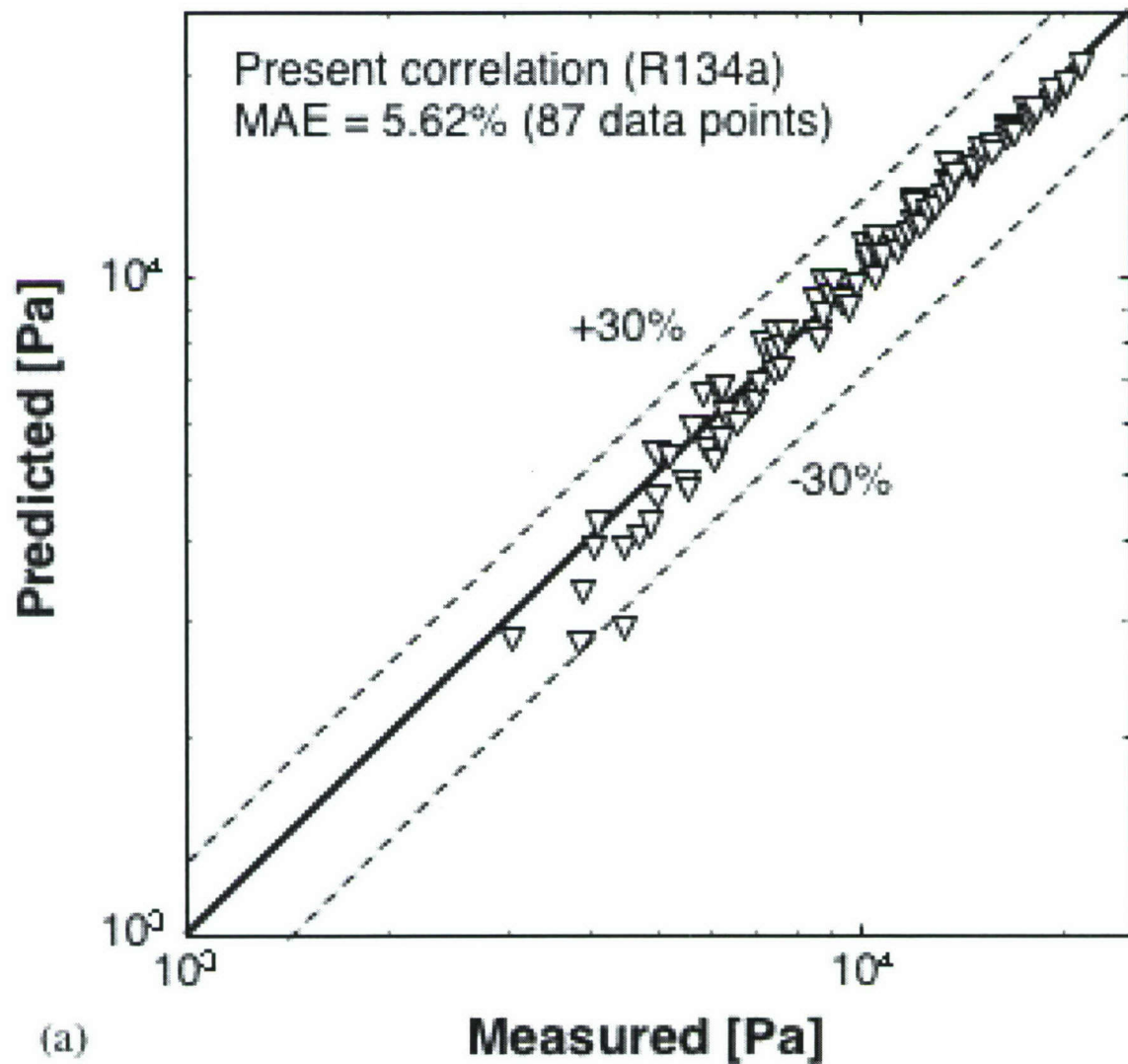


Figure I.3.3 Comparison of new correlation predictions with (a) present R134a data and (b) Qu and Mudawar's (2003) micro-channel water data.

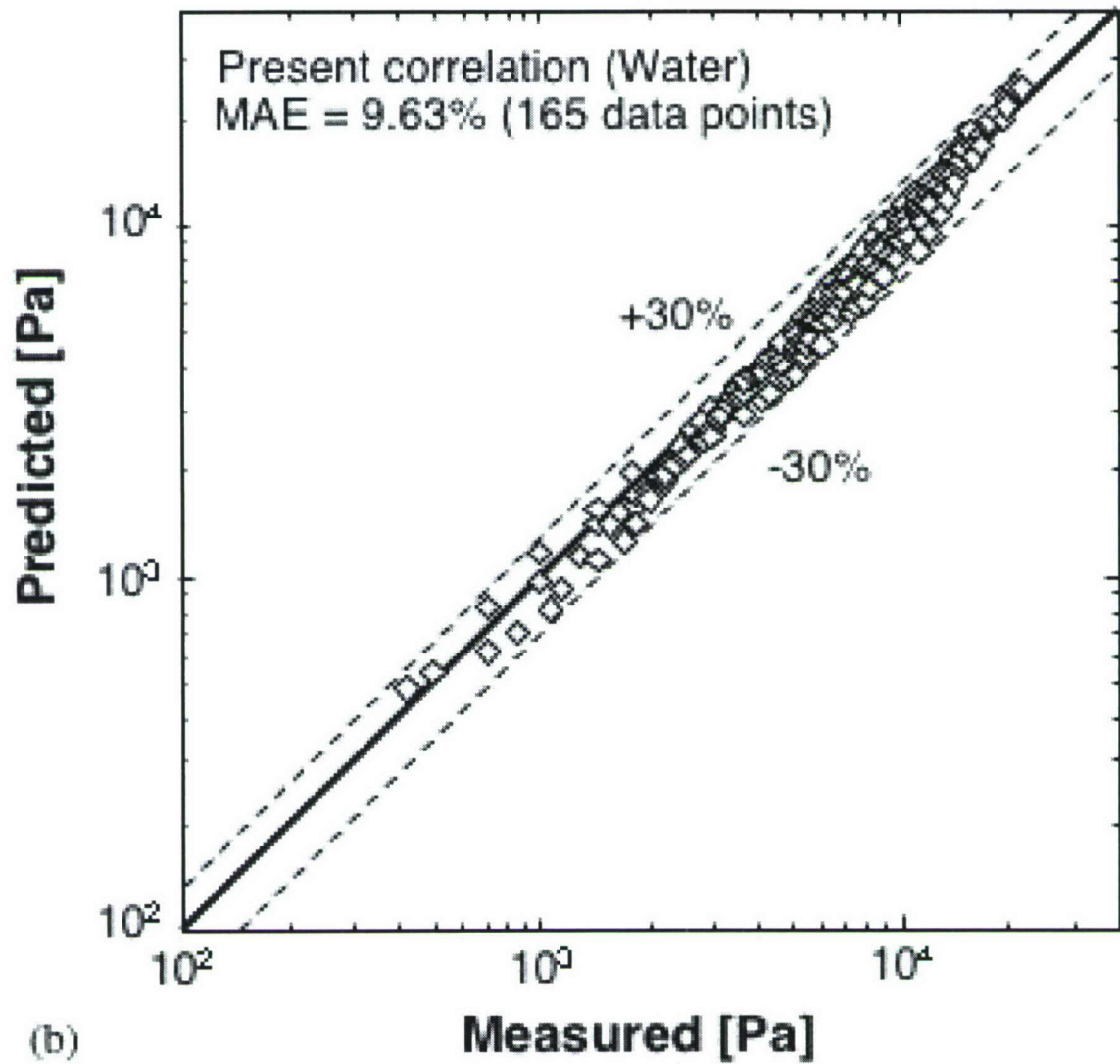


Figure I.3.3 continued.

I.3.4 Dominant Features of Two-Phase Pressure Drop

The newly developed correlation was used to explore several important trends concerning pressure drop in the present R134a study. Figure I.3.4(a) shows, for a constant heat flux, the two-phase pressure drop decreases with increasing outlet quality due mostly to decreasing mass velocity. This decrease appears to subside around an exit quality value of unity. Figure I.3.4(b) shows increasing heat flux for a constant mass velocity increases pressure drop up to a particular heat flux value beyond which pressure drop becomes constant or slightly decreases.

These trends can be explained by exploring the variations of individual components of pressure drop. Figure I.3.5 shows the contributions of these components to total pressure drop. For a constant mass velocity, the two-phase frictional and accelerational losses both increase with increasing heat flux up to a particular heat flux value corresponding to complete conversion into vapor. Beyond this point, the two-phase frictional loss decreases as the two-phase region begins to occupy a smaller portion of the channel length. However, the accelerational loss becomes constant beyond the same point as the flow is converted completely into vapor. Since the downstream portion of the channel is now occupied mostly by vapor, the decreased two-phase frictional loss is compensated for by a measurable increase in the single-phase vapor pressure loss. This explains why the total pressure drop becomes constant or decreases slightly with increasing heat flux beyond the point of full conversion into vapor.

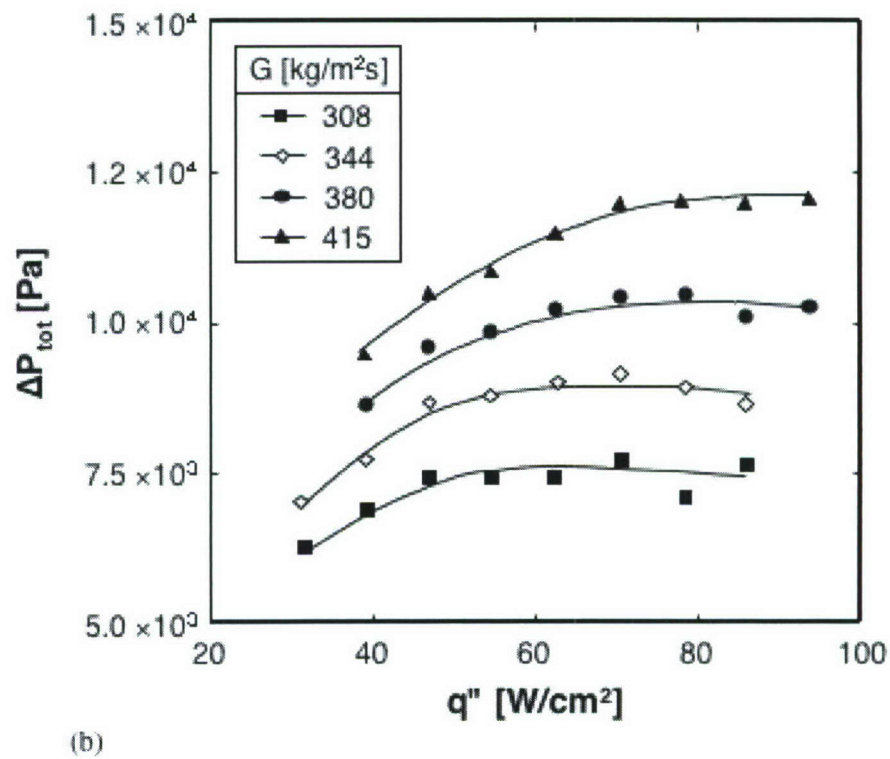
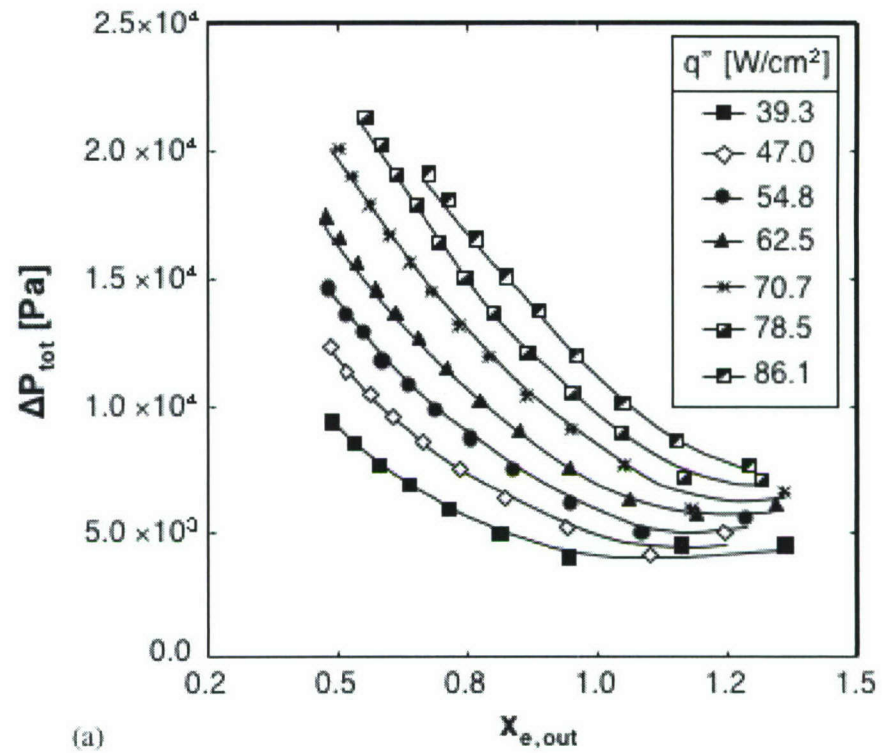


Figure I.3.4 Variation of measured R134a total pressure drop with (a) exit quality for different heat fluxes, and (b) heat flux for different mass velocities.

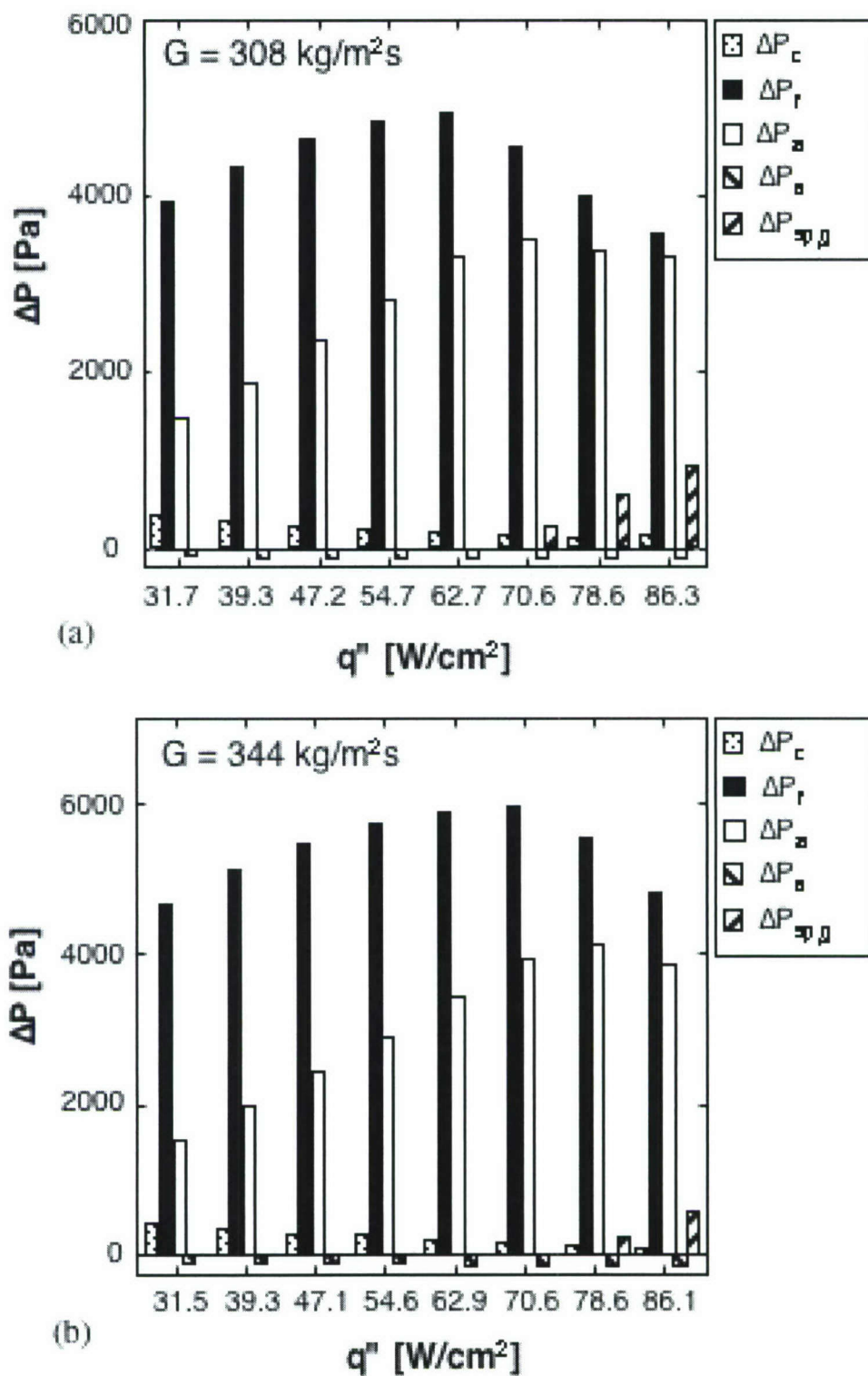


Figure I.3.5 Individual components of pressure drop for different heat fluxes and mass velocities of (a) 308, (b) 344, (c) 380, and (d) 415 $\text{kg/m}^2\text{s}$.

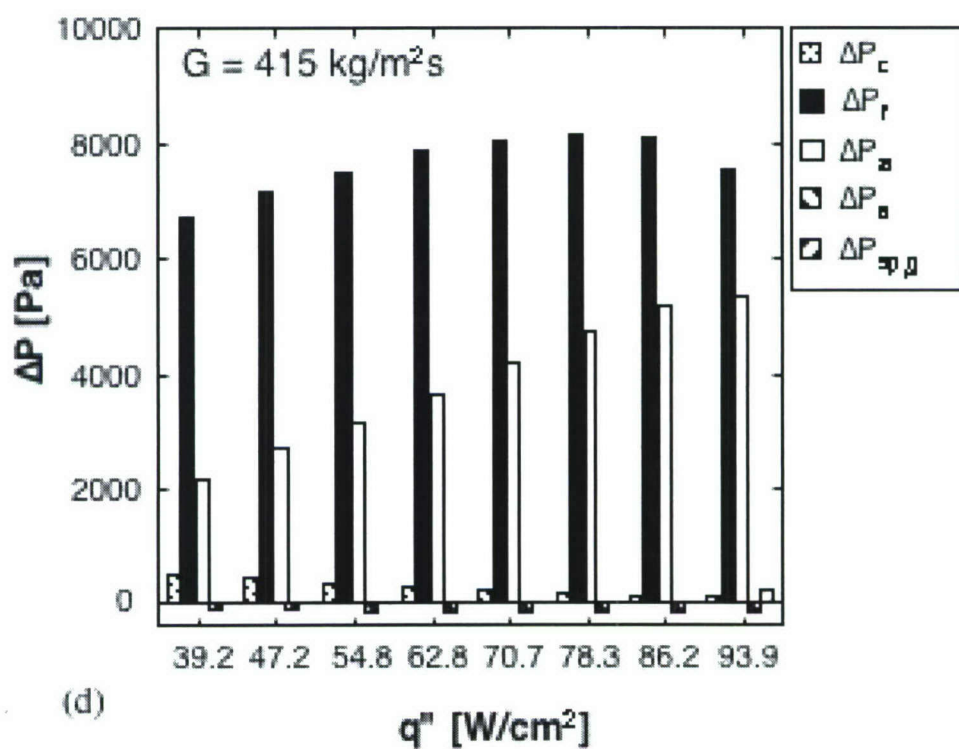
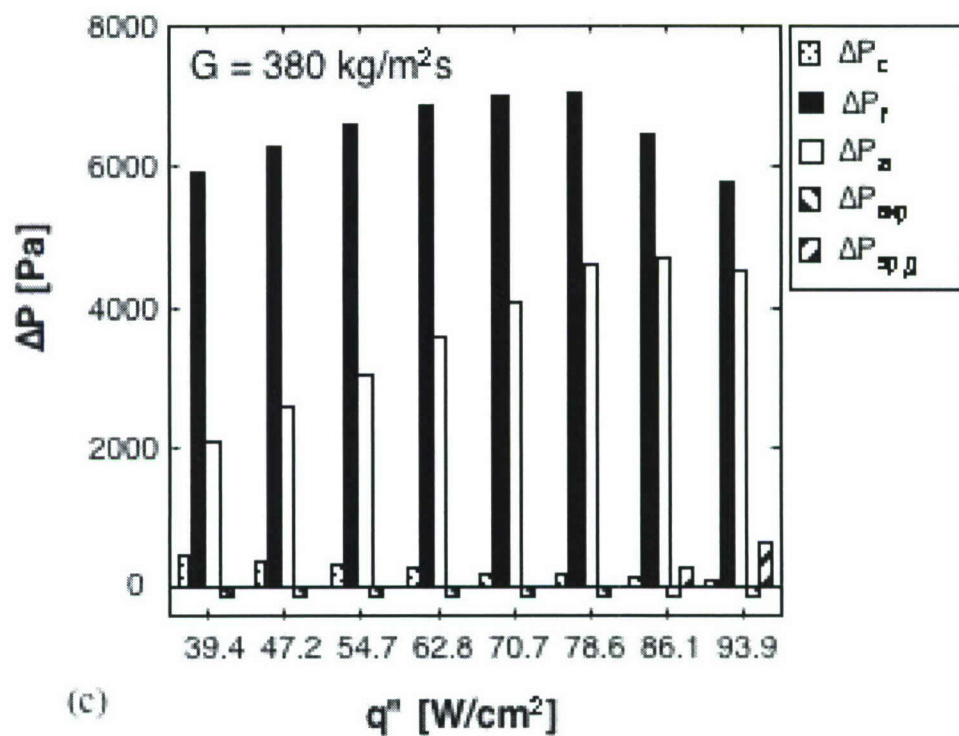


Figure I.3.5 continued.

I.3.5 Flow Instabilities

Intrinsic to any refrigeration cycle, the throttling valve located upstream of the evaporator offers important benefits to the operation of a micro-channel evaporator. Qu and Mudawar (2003) proved the interaction of the two-phase mixture with the upstream compressible volume in a flow loop can trigger ‘severe pressure oscillation’ which is also a precursor for premature critical heat flux (CHF). The throttling valve in the present system imparted greater stiffness to the system, precluding both this severe form of instability and the premature CHF.

Despite its effectiveness at suppressing the severe pressure oscillation, the micro-channel evaporator is still susceptible to a second ‘parallel channel instability’ [Qu and Mudawar (2003)] caused by interaction between micro-channels within the heat sink itself. This instability is quite random in nature and much milder than the aforementioned ‘severe pressure oscillation.’ This is demonstrated in Fig. I.3.6 in the form of temporal variations of pressure drop for different mass velocities at four representative heat fluxes. It is important to point out that mass velocity is strongly tied to the amount of throttling upstream of the evaporator. Reducing the throttling increases the mass velocity but increases the parallel channel instability as well. This trend is clearly evident in Figs. I.3.6(b) and (c). Despite the seemingly large increase in instability, the reader is cautioned that the amplitude of pressure fluctuation at the highest mass velocity of $G = 621 \text{ kg/m}^2\text{s}$ is only about 4000 Pa, which is hardly a reason for concern in a practical refrigeration system.

Figure I.3.6 provides valuable insight into the effect of heat flux on flow instability. Comparing Figs. I.3.6(c) and (d) shows increasing the heat flux for the same mass velocity aids in stabilizing the flow. This is apparently due to the higher heat flux increasing vapor production causing (1) a smaller portion of the micro-channel length being occupied by the two-phase mixture and (2) increasing pressure drop. Both effects increase the evaporator’s stiffness for a given amount of upstream throttling.

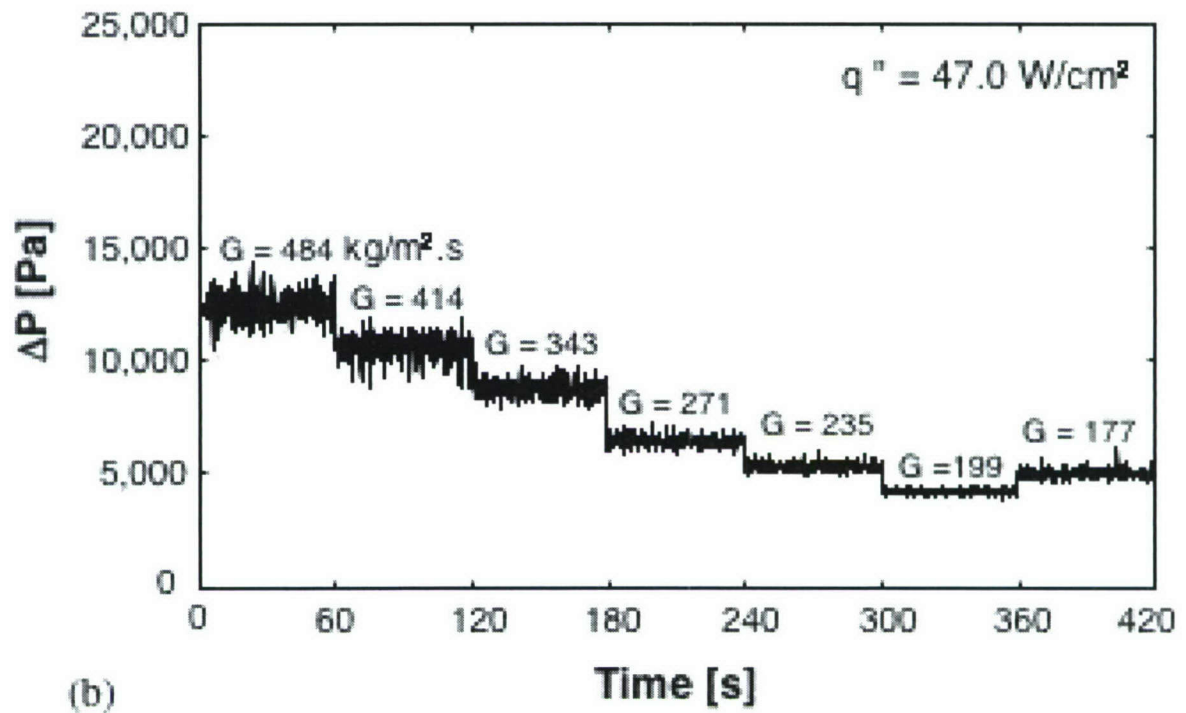
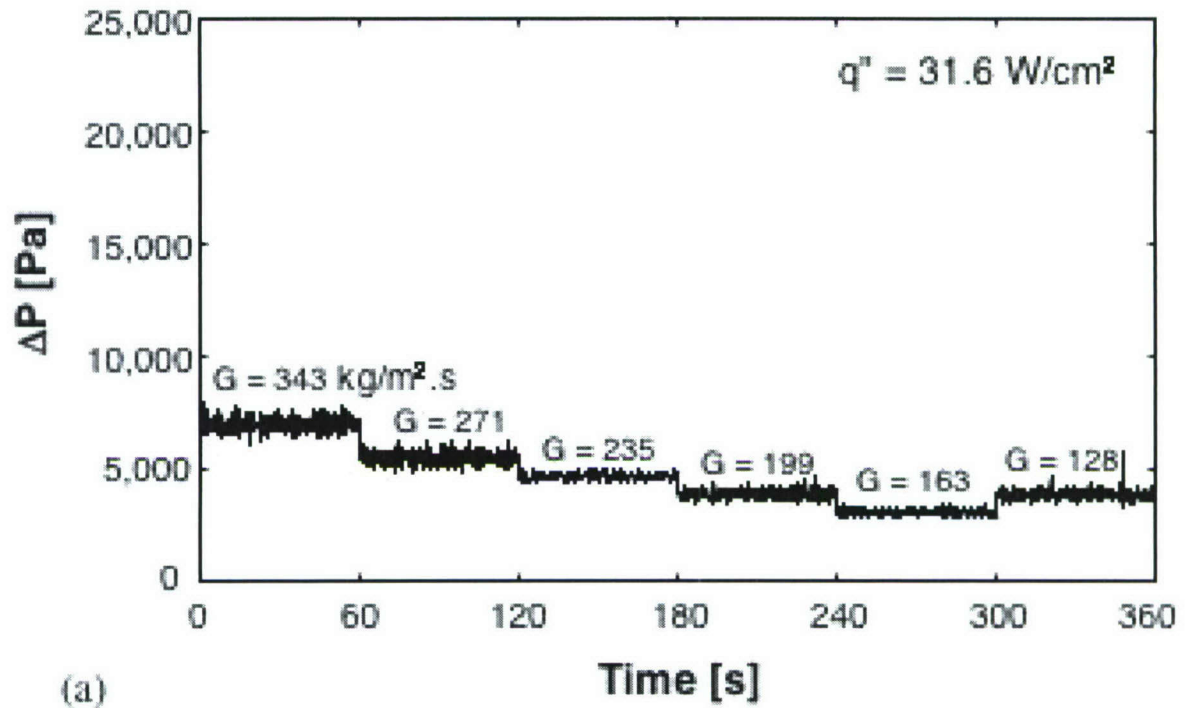


Figure I.3.6 Temporal variations of pressure drop for heat fluxes of (a) 31.6, (b) 47.0, (c) 62.6, and (d) 78.5 W/cm^2 .

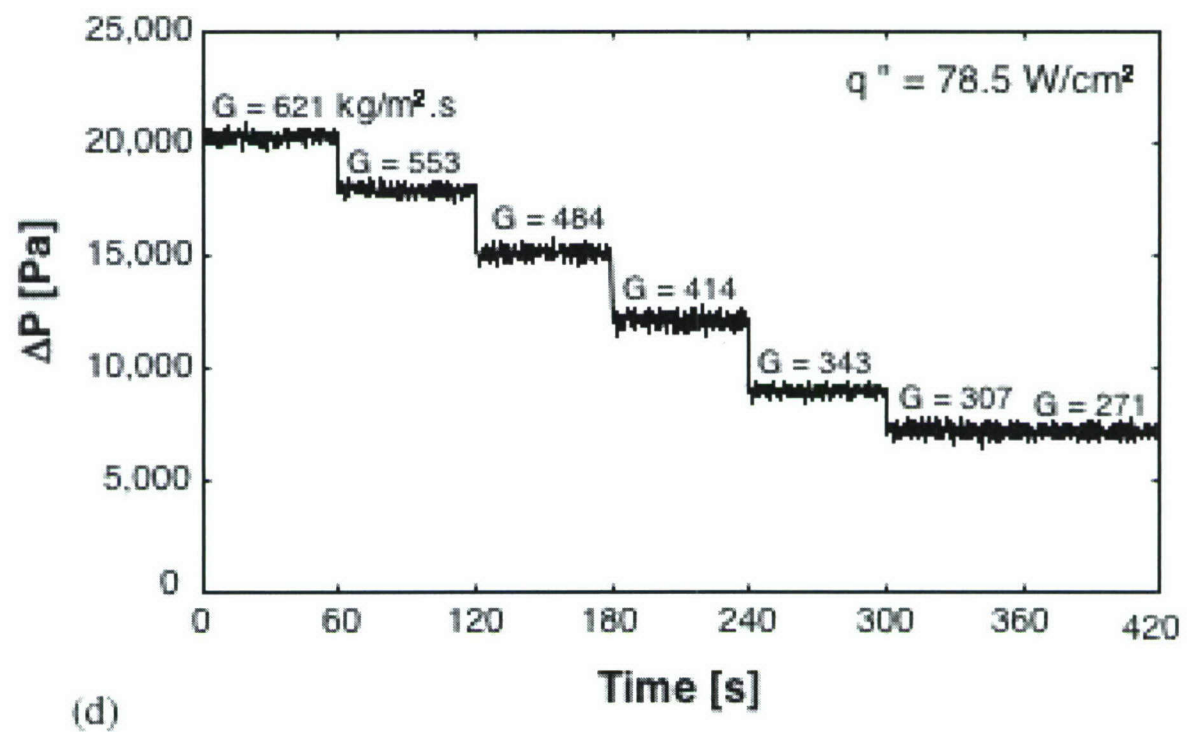
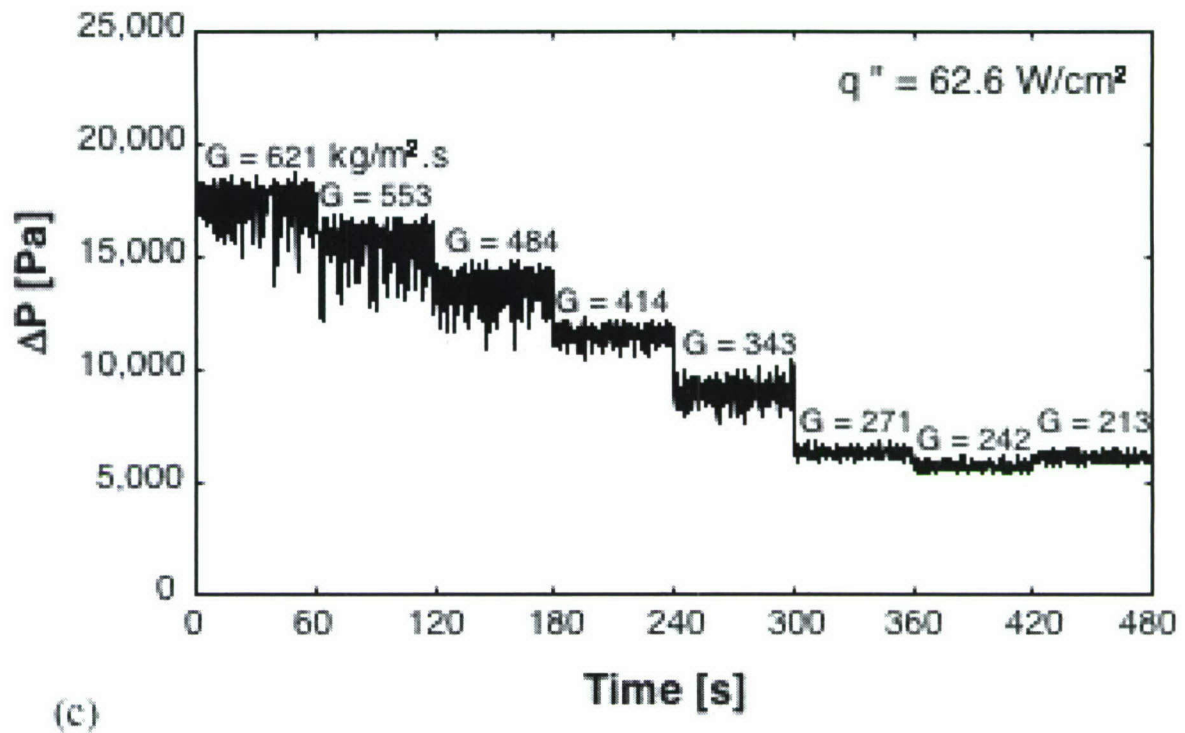


Figure I.3.6 continued.

I.4 BOILING HEAT TRANSFER IN MICRO-CHANNEL HEAT SINK

I.4.1 Determination of Heat Transfer Coefficient

Figure I.4.1 shows a unit control volume consisting of a single micro-channel and half of the surrounding copper walls. A simplified fin model of the copper walls is used to construct an energy balance for this control volume. Equating the heat influx to the unit cell through the bottom solid wall to the heat efflux by flow boiling along the micro-channel bottom and side walls (since the top wall is adiabatic) yields [Qu and Mudawar (2003)]

$$q'' (W_{ch} + 2W_w) = h_{tp} (T_{w,b} - T_{f,sat}) (W_{ch} + 2\eta H_{ch}), \quad (I.4.1)$$

where η is the fin efficiency. Since the top wall is adiabatic, the fin efficiency is given by [Incropera and Dewitt (2002)]

$$\eta = \frac{\tanh(m H_{ch})}{m H_{ch}}, \quad (I.4.2)$$

where m is the fin parameter defined as

$$m = \sqrt{\frac{h_{tp}}{k_s W_w}}. \quad (I.4.3)$$

The fin base temperature, $T_{w,b}$, was calculated using the assumption of one-dimensional heat diffusion between the plane of the thermocouple embedded in the copper block and the plane containing the fin base.

$$T_{w,b} = T_{tc} - \frac{q'' H_{tc}}{k_s}. \quad (I.4.4)$$

The fluid temperature, $T_{f,sat}$, in Eq. (I.4.1) is the bulk temperature halfway along the micro-channel based on pressure at the same location determined from the measured inlet

Micro-channel axial length = L
 Thermocouple located at $L_{tc} = L/2$

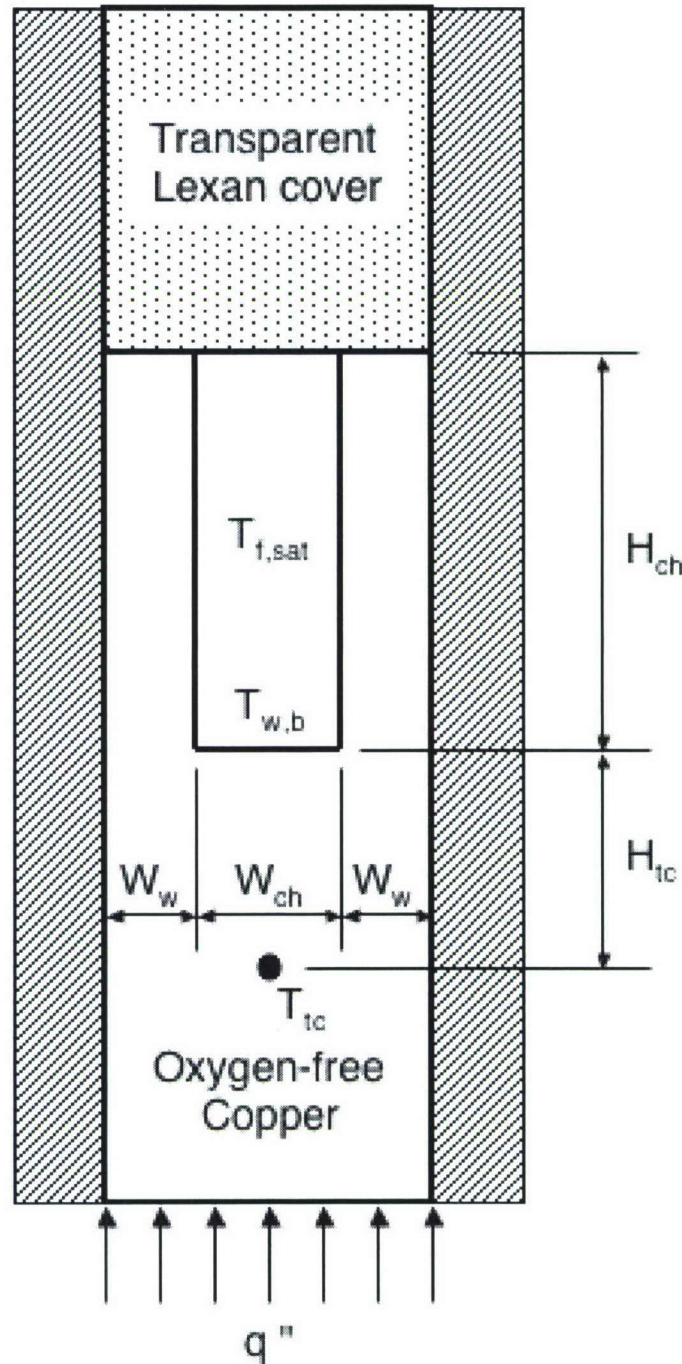


Figure I.4.1 Micro-channel unit cell .

pressure and the pressure drop correlation scheme presented in chapter I.3.3 of this report. Calculations revealed that, excepting superheated evaporator outlet conditions, $T_{f,sat}$, was close to the mean value of the measured inlet and outlet temperatures.

Equations (I.4.1) and (I.4.2) are therefore used to determine h_{tp} since all other parameters are easily measured or calculated. Figure I.4.2 shows the variation of the measured heat transfer coefficient h_{tp} at $z = L/2$ with quality at the same stream-wise location (obtained by substituting L in Eq. (I.2.1) by $L/2$) for different values of heat flux. This quality was varied experimentally by reducing mass flow rate (through increased throttling upstream of the evaporator) while maintaining a constant heat flux. To maintain reliable compressor operation, only values in excess of $x_{e,c} = 0.25$ could be tested. Figure I.4.2 shows h_{tp} decreases with increasing vapor quality, a basic feature of annular evaporative boiling, not nucleate boiling as was suggested in some of the earlier studies. Another noteworthy feature of the same data is the large magnitude of h_{tp} (2,000 – 50,000 W/m²K), which is far superior to values typically attained with mini- and macro-channels.

Figure I.4.2 also shows the influence of heat flux on h_{tp} is very strong up to quality values around $x_{e,c} = 0.55$, beyond which there is a great diminution in the heat flux effect. For $x_{e,c} < 0.55$, the slope of h_{tp} versus $x_{e,c}$ is very steep for large heat fluxes but approaches zero at the lowest heat flux of $q'' = 15.9$ W/cm². This trend points to h_{tp} values becoming constant (independent of $x_{e,c}$) had even lower heat flux values been tested. As indicated earlier, the compressor precluded operating at such low heat fluxes.

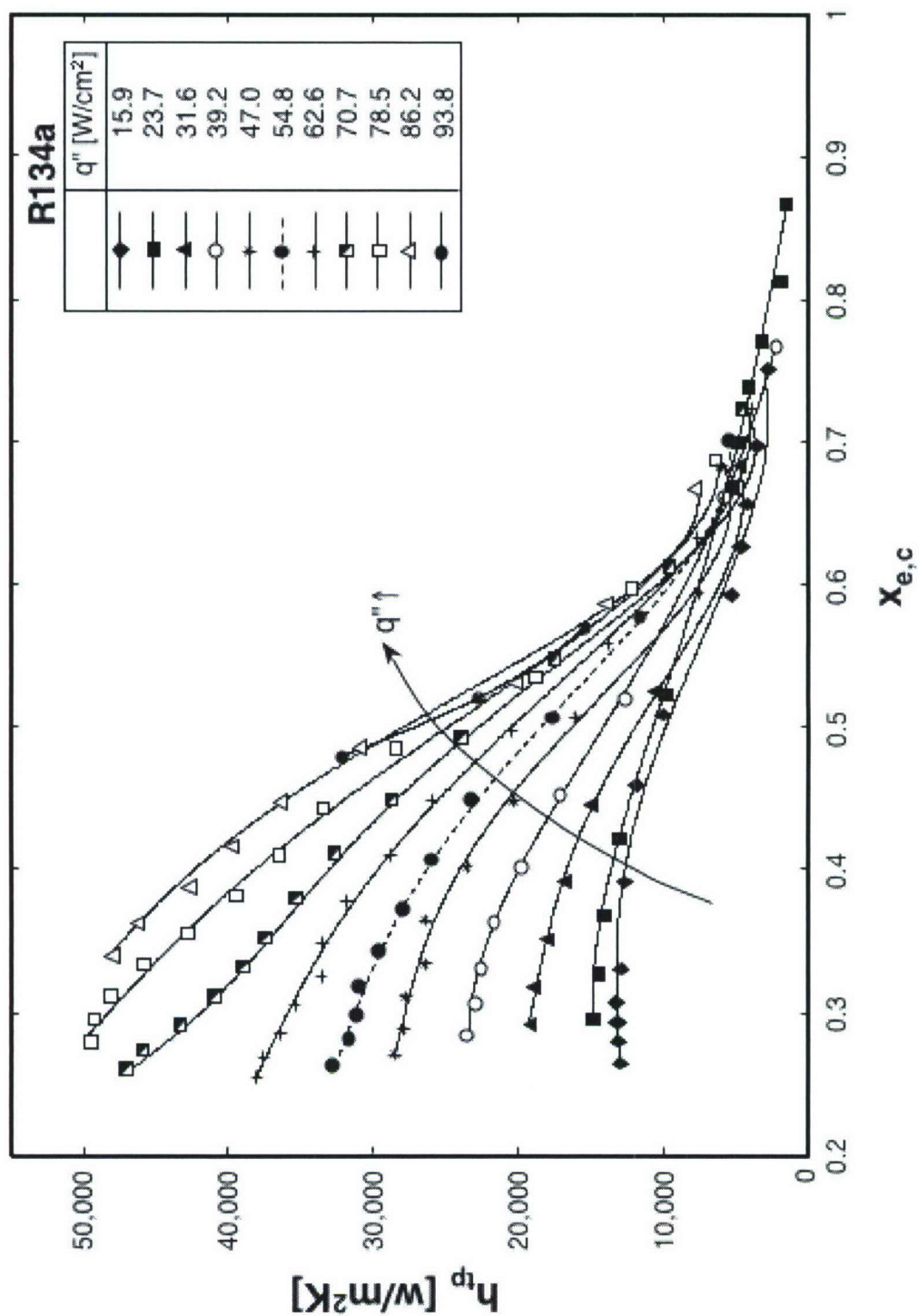
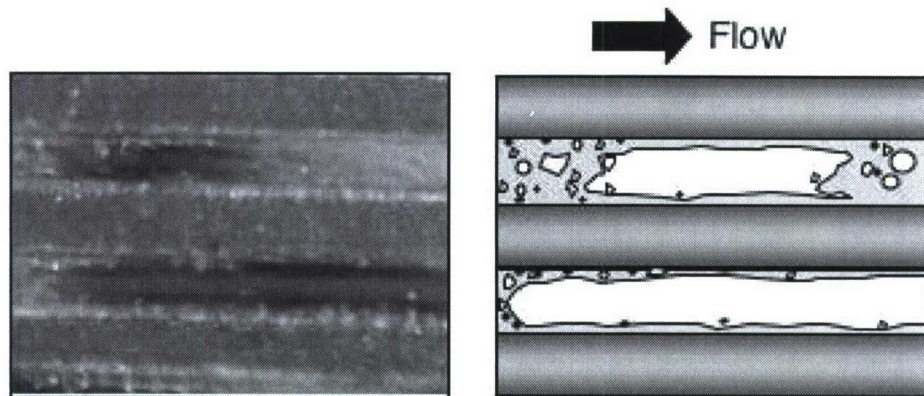


Figure I.4.2 Variation of local heat transfer coefficient for R134a with thermodynamic equilibrium quality for different heat fluxes.

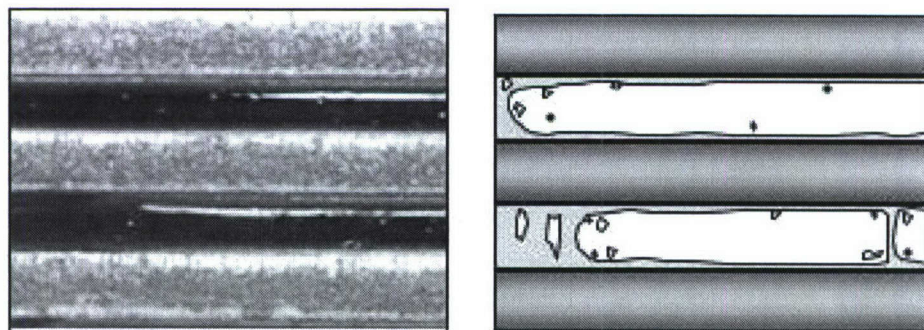
I.4.2 Flow Visualization

Flow visualization was used to better understand the aforementioned heat transfer coefficient trends. As indicated earlier, the transparent cover plate provided direct optical access to the boiling phenomena occurring within the micro-channel. The clarity of video and still images was limited by the small micro-channel size, lighting requirements, and internal reflection within the inner walls of the micro-channels. Figure I.4.3 shows an image of the flow in two adjacent micro-channels along with a schematic rendering of the same image at each of three values of quality halfway along the channel. Notice the slight differences in boiling pattern between the adjacent micro-channels. As explained in section I.3.5 concerning flow instabilities, these differences are the result of a mild parallel channel instability causing slight flow pattern variations among the micro-channels. This form of instability was more pronounced at lower quality values.

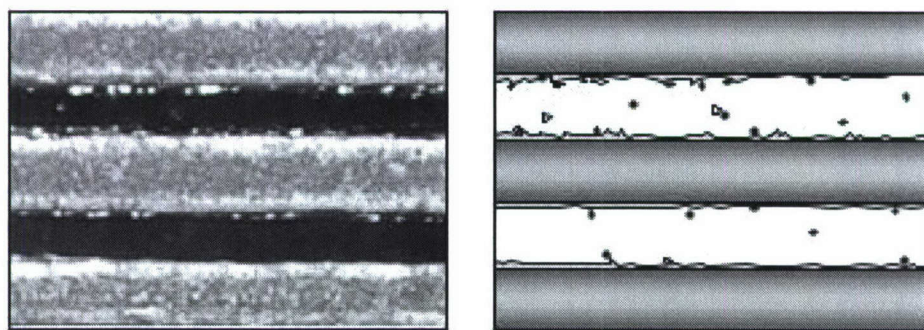
Figure I.4.3(a) shows a combination of slug flow and to a lesser extent bubbly flow for $x_{e,c} = 0.39$. Small bubbles exhibited violent mixing in the liquid slugs between the elongated bubbles. There are two possible sources for these small bubbles. The first is entrance inclusion since the flow enters the evaporator as a two-phase mixture. The second is nucleation within the micro-channels, which can be easily detected for bubbles nucleating from the sidewalls. Previous studies with a water-cooled micro-channel heat sink showed bubbly flow could rarely be sustained [Qu and Mudawar (2003)]. In fact, annular flow was the dominant regime for most medium- and high-flux conditions. This drastic difference between two-phase flow patterns for R134a and water is explained by the low surface tension of R134a producing far smaller bubbles than in water [Mukherjee and Mudawar (2003)]. Very small bubbles are far more apt to travel discretely along a micro-channel before coalescing into long bubbles, thus enabling the bubbly and slug flow regimes to be more prevalent in refrigerant micro-channel flow.



(a) $x_{e,c} = 0.39$, $q'' = 31.6 \text{ W/cm}^2$, $G = 235.2 \text{ kg/m}^2 \text{ s}$



(b) $x_{e,c} = 0.53$, $q'' = 31.6 \text{ W/cm}^2$, $G = 163.3 \text{ kg/m}^2 \text{ s}$



(c) $x_{e,c} = 0.68$, $q'' = 31.6 \text{ W/cm}^2$, $G = 128.2 \text{ kg/m}^2 \text{ s}$

Figure I.4.3 Two-phase flow pattern and schematic renderings of R134a flow at (a) $x_{e,c} = 0.39$, $q'' = 31.6 \text{ W/cm}^2$, $G = 235.2 \text{ kg/m}^2 \text{ s}$; (b) $x_{e,c} = 0.53$, $q'' = 31.6 \text{ W/cm}^2$, $G = 163.3 \text{ kg/m}^2 \text{ s}$, and (c) $x_{e,c} = 0.68$, $q'' = 31.6 \text{ W/cm}^2$, $G = 128.2 \text{ kg/m}^2 \text{ s}$.

Figure I.4.3(b) shows the flow pattern at a quality value close to the transitional value discussed earlier in conjunction with the variation of h_{tp} with $x_{e,c}$, which was the upper quality boundary for a strong heat flux effect. This slug flow pattern consists mainly of elongated bubbles with very few small bubbles within the liquid slugs. Notice the two elongated bubbles in the lower micro-channel separated by a very thin liquid ridge, tending to coalesce into a single longer bubble or transition to annular flow.

Figure I.4.3(c) shows fully developed annular flow with a very thin liquid film covering the micro-channel walls at $x_{e,c} = 0.68$. The film appears too thin in certain locations to maintain adequate cooling. This is evident in the lower of the two micro-channels where dryout might be occurring locally, and where droplet deposition from the vapor core appears very sparse. These observations point to $x_e \approx 0.55$ as a lower boundary for local dryout, and perhaps critical heat flux (CHF) for refrigerant micro-channel flow.

Interestingly, Tran et al. (1996) detected transition from slug to annular flow around $x_e \approx 0.6 - 0.7$, compared to $x_e \approx 0.25 - 0.35$ for macro-channels. The present study points to transition values smaller than those of Tran et al. but greater than for macro-channels. Clearly, vapor quality is not the sole indicator for regime transition, and other parameters such as surface tension and channel shape and dimensions must influence transition behavior.

I.4.3 Assessment of Prior Correlations

Several popular macro-channel correlations and recently recommended small-channel correlations were examined for accuracy in predicting the present heat transfer data. These correlations are summarized in Table I.4.1. Since these correlations concern circular channels with uniform circumferential heating, predictions had to be adjusted for the three-sided wall heating and rectangular geometry of the present study using the following relation:

$$h_{tp} = h_{tp,cor} \frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4}, \quad (I.4.5)$$

where $h_{tp,cor}$ is the value predicted from a correlation, and Nu_3 and Nu_4 are the single-phase Nusselt numbers for laminar flow with three-sides and four-sides wall heating, respectively [Shah and London (1978)].

$$Nu_3 = 8.235(1 - 1.883\beta + 3.767\beta^2 - 5.814\beta^3 + 5.361\beta^4 - 2.0\beta^5) \quad (I.4.6)$$

and
$$Nu_4 = 8.235(1 - 2.042\beta + 3.085\beta^2 - 2.477\beta^3 + 1.058\beta^4 - 0.186\beta^5). \quad (I.4.7)$$

The first three correlations in Table I.4.1 are popular for determining the two-phase heat transfer coefficient for macro-channels. These correlations include a single-phase term, h_{sp} , based on turbulent liquid flow prevalent in large channels. The Dittus-Boelter relation used for h_{sp} is a key drawback to using these three correlations for micro-channel flow, where the liquid is almost invariably laminar. The laminar liquid flow is the reason behind using Eqs. (I.4.6) and (I.4.7) when evaluating h_{sp} in the three macro-channel correlations.

The five remaining correlations in Table I.4.1 were all developed for smaller channels. Notice that correlations 4, 5 and 7 assume heat transfer is dominated by nucleate boiling, while correlations 6 and 8 are based on a form similar to that of macro-channel correlations.

Figure I.4.4 compares the measured heat transfer coefficient to predictions based on each of the correlations from Table I.4.1. The predictive accuracy of a correlation was measured by the mean absolute error, defined as

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum \left[\frac{|h_{tp,pred} - h_{tp,exp}|}{h_{tp,exp}} \times 100 \right]. \quad (I.4.8)$$

Figure I.4.4 shows all eight correlations yield poor predictions of the present data. The macro-channel correlations generally overpredict the data in the high quality region (region of low h_{tp} values), and underpredict in the low quality region. The three small channel correlations based on nucleate boiling (correlations 4, 5 and 7) and two remaining small channel correlations (6 and 8) all show poor predictions, evidenced by their large MAE values.

Table I.4.1 Previous correlations for boiling in small channels.

No.	Author(s)	Correlation	Remarks
1	Chen (1966)	$h_{tp} = \left(\frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4} \right) (E h_{sp} + S h_{nb})$ $h_{sp} = Nu \frac{k_f}{d_h},$ $Nu_{lam} = const \text{ [Refer to Eqs.(I.4.6) and (I.4.7)],}$ $Nu_{tur} = 0.023 Re_f^{0.8} Pr_f^{0.4}$ $h_{nb} = 0.00122 \left(\frac{k_f^{0.79} c_{p,f}^{0.45} v_g^{0.24}}{\sigma^{0.5} \mu_f^{0.29} h_{fg}^{0.24} v_f^{0.49}} \right) \Delta T_{sat}^{0.24} \Delta P_{sat}^{0.75}$ $E = \left(1 + \frac{1}{X^{0.5}} \right)^{1.78},$ $S = 0.9622 - 0.5822 \tan^{-1} \left\{ \frac{Re_f E^{1.25}}{6.18 \times 10^4} \right\}$ $X = \left[\frac{(dp/dz)_f}{(dp/dz)_g} \right]^{0.5},$ $Re_f = \frac{G(1-x_e)d_h}{\mu_f}, \quad Pr_f = \frac{\mu_f c_{p,f}}{k_f}$	Macro-channel correlation
2	Shah (1982)	$h_{tp} = \left(\frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4} \right) Max(E, S) h_{sp}$ <p>For $1.0 < N$, $S = 1.8/N^{0.8}$, $E = 230 Bo^{0.5}$ for $Bo > 3 \times 10^{-5}$ or $E = 1 + 46 Bo^{0.5}$ for $Bo < 3 \times 10^{-5}$</p> <p>For $0.1 < N \leq 1.0$, $S = 1.8/N^{0.8}$, $E = F Bo^{0.5} \exp(2.74 N^{-0.1})$</p> <p>For $N \leq 0.1$, $S = 1.8/N^{0.8}$, $E = F Bo^{0.5} \exp(2.47 N^{-0.15})$, $F = 14.7$ for $Bo \geq 11 \times 10^{-4}$ or $F = 15.43$ for $Bo < 11 \times 10^{-4}$</p> <p>$N = Co$ for $Fr_f \geq 0.04$ or $N = 0.38 Fr_f^{-0.3} Co$ for $Fr_f < 0.04$;</p> $Co = \left(\frac{1-x_e}{x_e} \right)^{0.8} \left(\frac{v_f}{v_g} \right)^{0.5}; Fr_f = \frac{v_f^2 G^2}{g d_h}$	Macro-channel correlation

Table I.4.1 continued.

No.	Author(s)	Correlation	Remarks
3	Liu & Winterton (1991)	$h_{tp} = \left(\frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4} \right) \left((E h_{sp})^2 + (S h_{nb})^2 \right)^{0.5}$ $h_{sp} = Nu \frac{k_f}{d_h},$ $Nu_{lam} = const \text{ [Eqs. (I.4.6) and (I.4.7)],}$ $Nu_{Tur} = 0.023 Re_f^{0.8} Pr_f^{0.4}$ $E = \left(1 + x_e Pr_f \left(\frac{v_g}{v_f} - 1 \right) \right)^{0.35}$ $h_{nb} = 55 P_r^{0.12} (-\log_{10}(P_r))^{-0.55} M_w^{-0.5} q^{*0.67},$ $S = \left(1 + 0.055 E^{0.1} Re_{fo}^{0.16} \right)^{-1}$ <p>If $Fr_f \leq 0.05$ replace E by $E Fr_f^{0.1-2Fr_f}$ and S by $S Fr_f^{0.5}$</p>	Macro-channel correlation
4	Lazarek & Black (1982)	$h_{tp} = Nu_3 \left[30 Re_{fo}^{0.857} Bo^{0.714} \right] \left(\frac{k_f}{d_h} \right)$	Small channel correlation
5	Tran et al. (1996)	$h_{tp} = \left(\frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4} \right) \left[8.4 \times 10^5 (Bo^2 We_{fo})^{0.3} \left(\frac{v_g}{v_f} \right)^{-0.4} \right];$ $We_{fo} = \frac{v_f G^2 d_h}{\sigma}$	Small channel correlation
6	Lee & Lee (2001)	$h_{tp} = \left(\frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4} \right) (E h_{sp})$ $E = 10.3 \beta^{0.398} \phi_f^{0.598}, \quad \phi_f^2 = 1 + \frac{C}{X} + \frac{1}{X^2},$ $C = 6.185 \times 10^{-2} Re_{fo}^{0.726}$ $X^2 = \left[\frac{(dp/dz)_f}{(dp/dz)_g} \right]$	Small channel correlation

Table I.4.1 continued.

No.	Author(s)	Correlation	Remarks
7	Yu et al. (2002)	$h_{ip} = \left(\frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4} \right) \left[6.4 \times 10^6 (Bo^2 We_{fo})^{0.27} \left(\frac{\nu_g}{\nu_f} \right)^{-0.2} \right]$	Small channel correlation
8	Warrier et al. (2002)	$h_{ip} = \left(\frac{Nu_3}{Nu_4} \right) (E h_{sp})$ $h_{sp} = Nu \frac{k_f}{d_h},$ $Nu_{lam} = const \text{ (Refer to Eqs. (I.4.6) and (I.4.7)),}$ $Nu_{tur} = 0.023 Re_f^{0.8} Pr_f^{0.4}$ $E = 1.0 + 6 Bo^{1/16} + f(Bo) x_e^{0.65},$ $f(Bo) = -5.3(1 - 855 Bo)$	Small channel correlation

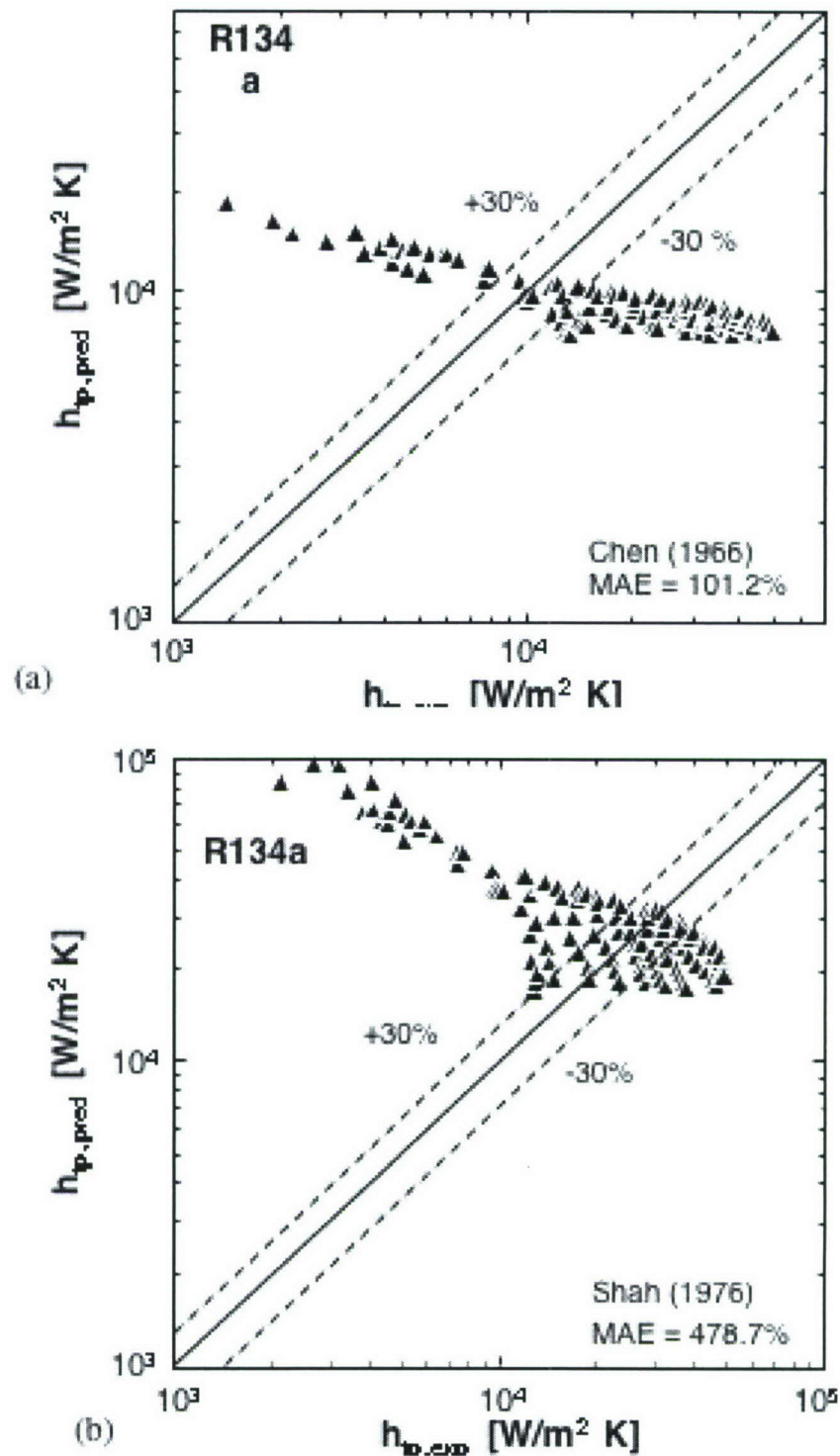


Figure I.4.4 Comparison of R134a heat transfer coefficient data with predictions based on (a) Chen (1966), (b) Shah (1976, 1982), (c) Lazarek and Black (1982), (d) Liu and Winterton (1991), (e) Tran et al. (1996), (f) Lee and Lee (2001), (g) Yu et al. (2002), and (h) Warriar et al. (2002).

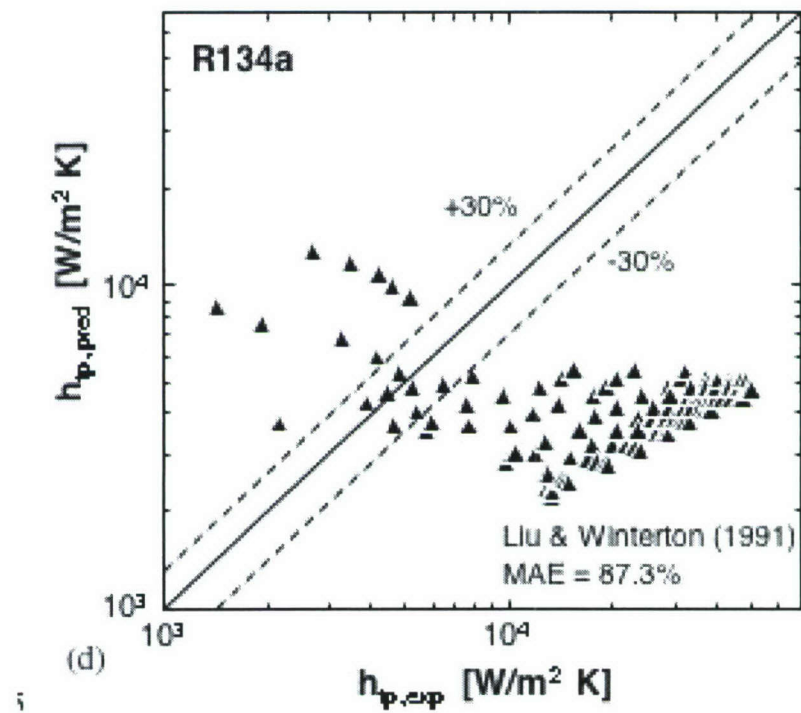
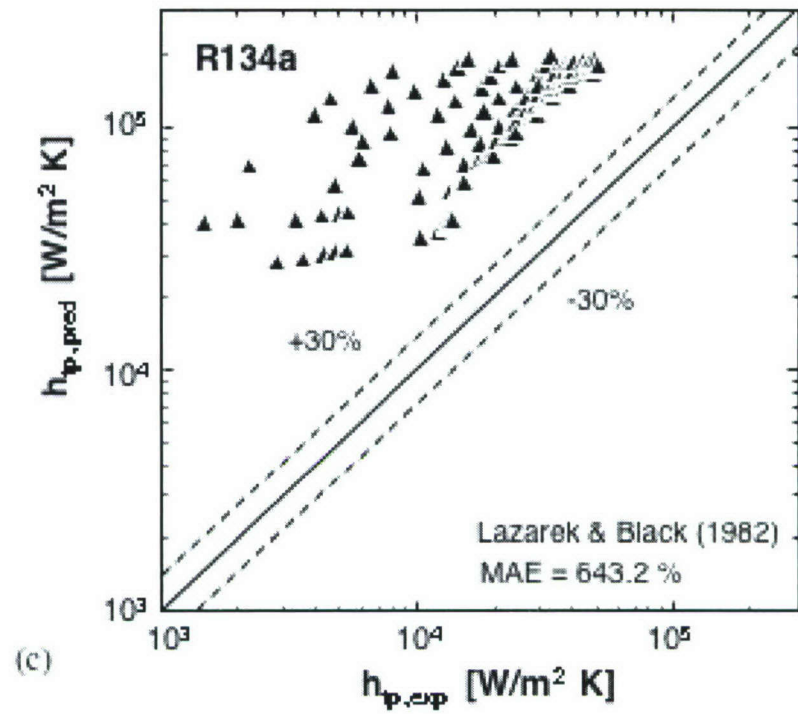


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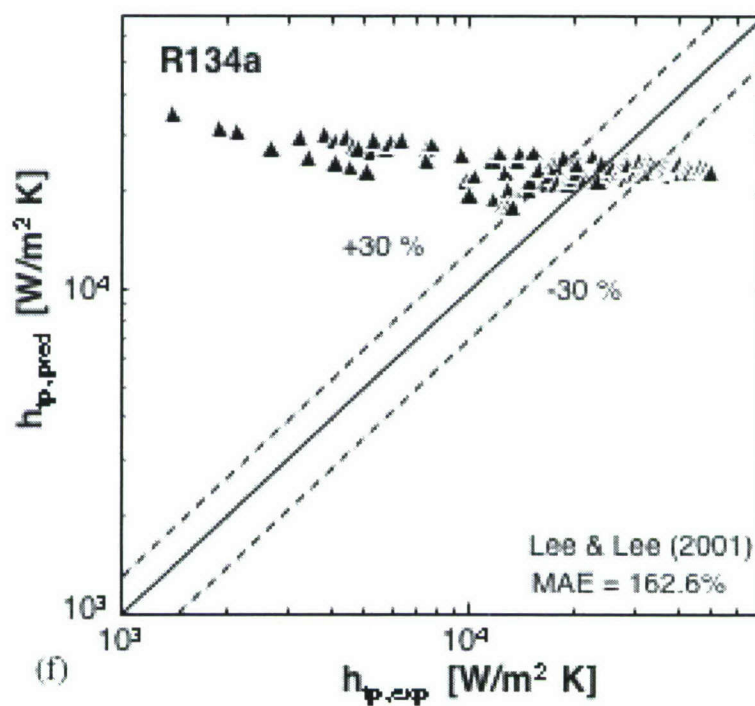
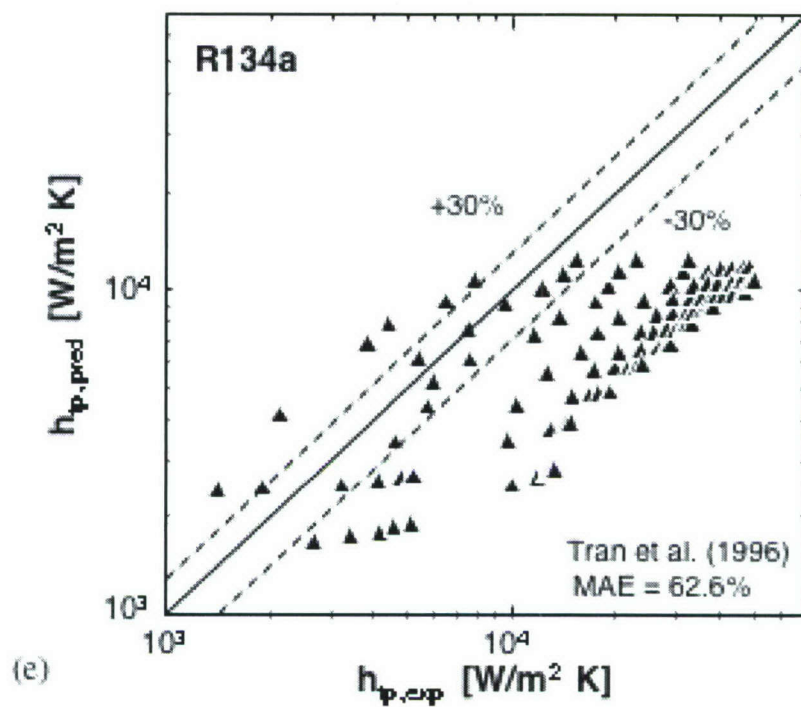


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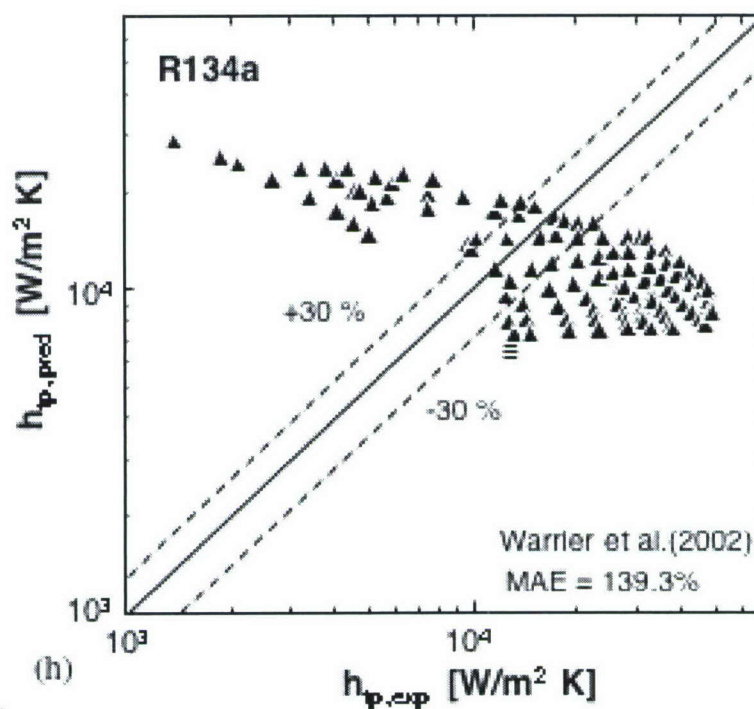
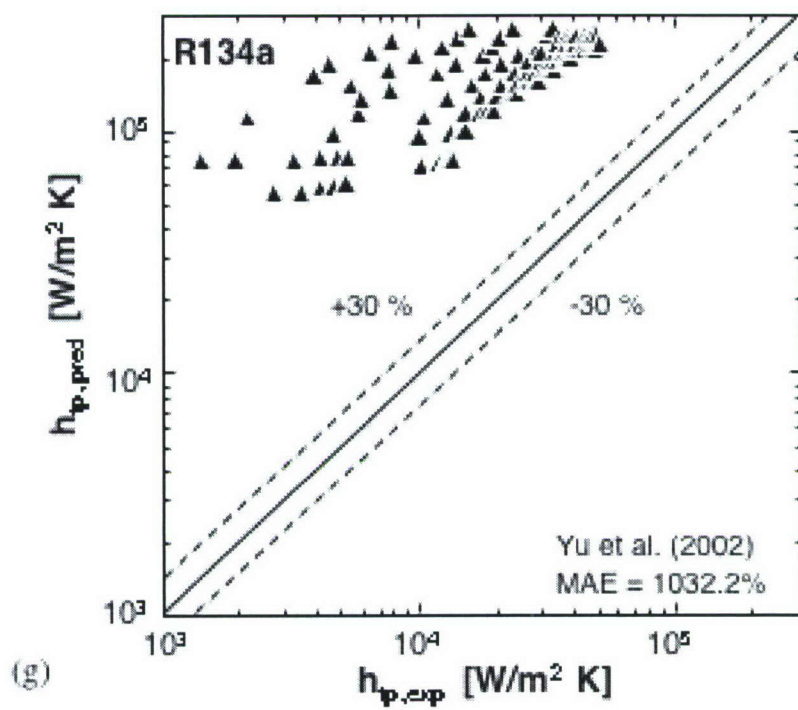


Figure I.4.4 continued.

I.4.4 New Correlation

The above assessment of prior correlations points a need for a new tool for accurate prediction of the heat transfer coefficient in refrigerant-cooled micro-channel heat sinks.

As indicated earlier, the compressor of the refrigeration system used in the present study precluded testing at low qualities. In order to both extend the quality range of the new correlation and demonstrate its validity for drastically different fluids, recent micro-channel water data by Qu and Mudawar (2003) were examined along with the new R134a data. Figure I.4.5 shows the variation of the two-phase heat transfer coefficient data with quality for the water data. Interestingly, the water data were obtained by modulating heat flux for a constant mass velocity, while the present R134a data were generated by regulating flow rate for a constant heat flux.

A new technique was sought that could correlate both the water and R134a data based on the Martinelli parameter, X , and account for micro-channel effects not represented in prior correlations. Exhaustive inspection of both the water and R134a databases showed two additional dimensionless parameters were required to adequately correlate all the data. They are the boiling number, Bo , and the liquid Weber number We_{fo} . Figures I.4.6 and I.4.7 show variations of X^2 , Bo and We_{fo} with quality and heat flux for R134a and water, respectively, the latter being more concentrated in the low $x_{e,c}$ region. Overall, these three parameters show different trends for different quality ranges. Therefore, better predictions are possible by dividing the overall quality range into smaller ranges corresponding as closely as possible to the aforementioned flow transitions and data trends.

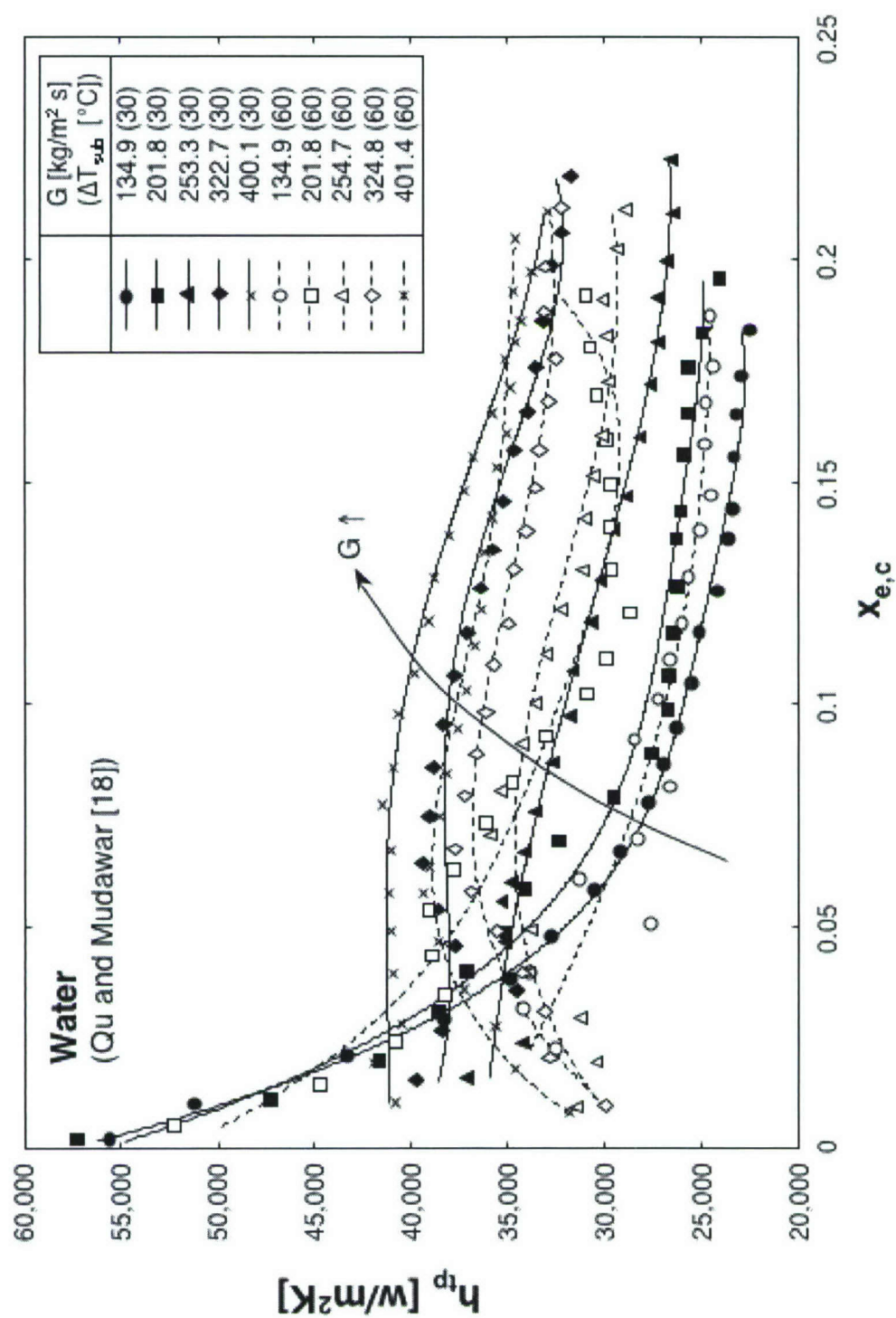


Figure I.4.5 Variation of local heat transfer coefficient for water [Qu and Mudawar (2003)] with thermodynamic equilibrium quality for different mass velocities.

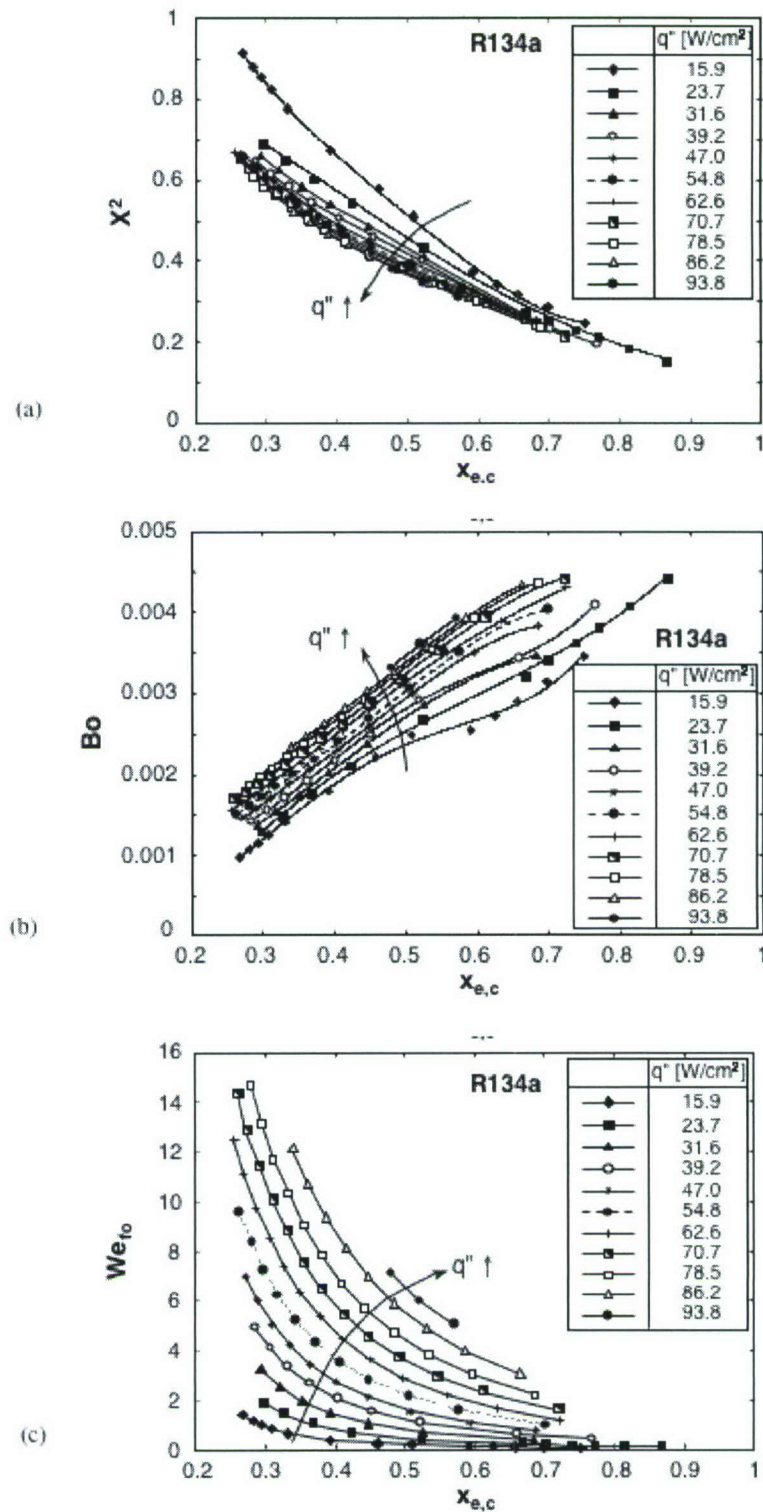


Figure I.4.6 Variations of (a) Martinelli parameter, (b) boiling number, and (c) Weber number with quality for R134a.

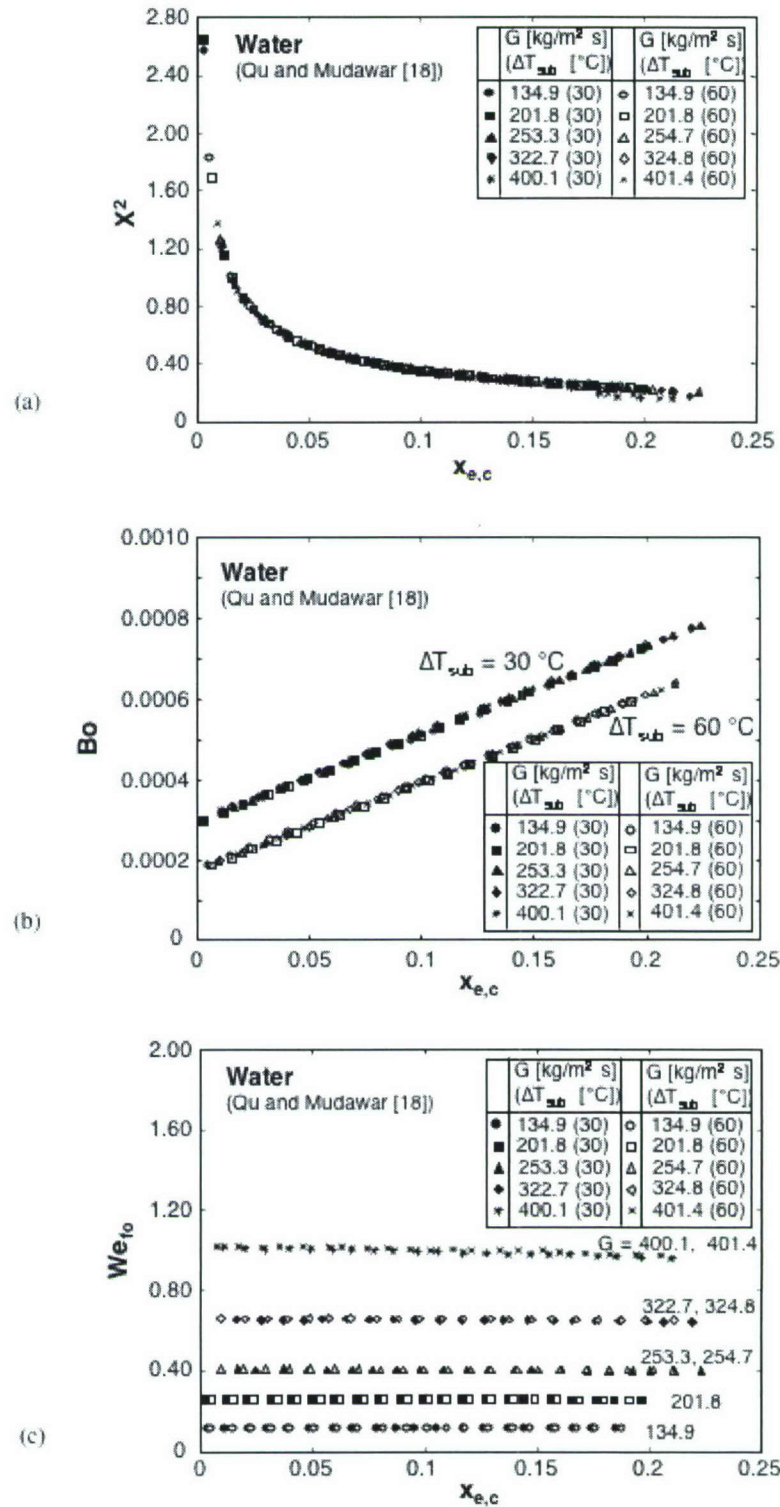


Figure I.4.7 Variations of (a) Martinelli parameter, (b) boiling number, and (c) Weber number with quality for water [Qu and Mudawar (2003)].

Three quality ranges provided adequate coverage of both the water and R134a databases. The first is a low quality range of $x_e = 0 - 0.05$. This low heat flux range is most closely associated with bubble nucleation and includes 50 water data points and none of the R134a data. These data show rapid and irregular variation of the heat transfer coefficient with quality as shown in Fig. I.4.5. Figure I.4.7(a) shows the Martinelli parameter in this range is uniquely determined by quality irrespective of flow rate or subcooling, and shows the sharpest decrease with increasing quality.

The second quality range is $x_e = 0.05 - 0.55$, which includes 83 R134a and 157 water data points. This range corresponds mostly to bubbly/slug flow, where the heat transfer data are no longer uniquely determined by the Martinelli parameter, but are sensitive to Bo and We_{fo} as well. The R134a and water data exhibit different trends with quality in this range. While the heat transfer coefficient decreases with increasing quality for both fluids, this decrease is far more pronounced for R134a, Fig. I.4.2, than for water, Fig. I.4.5. Those differences may be partially explained by the different values and trends of Bo and We_{fo} for the two fluids. Comparing Figs. I.4.6(b) and I.4.7(b) shows drastic differences in the magnitude of Bo , brought about mostly by a much smaller latent heat of vaporization for R134a compared to water. Figure I.4.6(c) shows far greater We_{fo} values for R134a compared to water, Fig. I.4.7(c), because of the much smaller surface tension of R134a. Furthermore, the large pressure changes in the R134a experiments produced appreciable property changes. Incorporating Bo and We_{fo} in the new correlation is anticipated to account for the drastic property variations that are far more accentuated in a micro-channel than in a macro-channel.

The last quality range is the liquid deficient region of $x_e = 0.55 - 1.0$, consisting of predominantly annular flow and local dryout. This includes 28 R134a data points but none of the water data. Figure I.4.6(a) shows a convergence of Martinelli number values for different heat fluxes. In this region, the thin annular film is gradually evaporated, sustained only by droplets entrained in the vapor core. Once the majority of droplets are depleted, evaporation results in monotonic thinning and eventual dryout of the liquid film. With this dryout, the heat transfer coefficient is greatly reduced as heat begins to be transferred directly to the vapor. Interestingly, the Martinelli parameter

approaches zero as quality goes to unity. Since dryout is followed by convection to vapor, a minimum value for the heat transfer coefficient correlation was set equal to that for convective heat transfer to pure vapor.

Table I.4.2 Present correlation scheme.

x_e	Correlation	Data	MAE
0 – 0.05	$h_{tp} = 3.856 X^{0.267} h_{sp,f}$ $X^2 = \frac{(dp/dz)_f}{(dp/dz)_g}, \quad h_{sp,f} = \frac{Nu_3 k_f}{d_h}$ $X_{vv} = \left(\frac{\mu_f}{\mu_g} \right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{1-x_e}{x_e} \right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{v_f}{v_g} \right)^{0.5}$ $X_{vt} = \left(\frac{f_f Re_g^{0.25}}{0.079} \right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{1-x_e}{x_e} \right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{v_f}{v_g} \right)^{0.5}$ $Re_g = \frac{G x_e d_h}{\mu_g}$	50 water data points	11.6%
0.05 – 0.55	$h_{tp} = 436.48 Bo^{0.522} We_{fo}^{0.351} X^{0.665} h_{sp,f}$ $Bo = \frac{q''}{G h_{fg}}, \quad We_{fo} = \frac{v_f G^2 d_h}{\sigma}$	83 R134a data points 157 water data points	11.9%
0.55 – 1.0	$h_{tp} = \max \left\{ (108.6 X^{1.665} h_{sp,g}), h_{sp,g} \right\}$ $h_{sp,g} = \frac{Nu_3 k_g}{d_h} \quad \text{for laminar gas flow}$ $h_{sp,g} = 0.023 Re_g^{0.8} Pr_g^{0.4} \quad \text{for turbulent gas flow}$	28 R134a data points	16.1%

Table I.4.2 summarizes the new correlations for the three quality regions. The low and high quality regions are based solely on the Martinelli parameter while the mid range includes the effects of Bo and We_{fo} as well. Overall, convection to liquid is important for both the low and mid quality regions, while convection to vapor becomes important for the high quality region. For the latter, the low viscosity of R134a vapor yields vapor

Reynolds numbers corresponding to turbulent flow at high-heat-flux conditions despite the small hydraulic diameter of the micro-channel. Thus, the single-phase vapor term in the high quality correlation must allow for both laminar or turbulent vapor flow.

Table I.4.2 shows the effect of the Martinelli parameter is important for each of the three quality ranges. The present correlations show the heat transfer coefficient is proportional to the Martinelli parameter raised to a positive exponent, whereas prior macro-channel correlations employ a negative exponent for the same parameter.

Figure I.4.8 shows excellent agreement between predictions based on the new correlation scheme and both the R134a and water data. An overall MAE of 12.26% indicates excellent predictive capability, especially with most of the data falling within a $\pm 30\%$ error range and capturing the correct data trend.

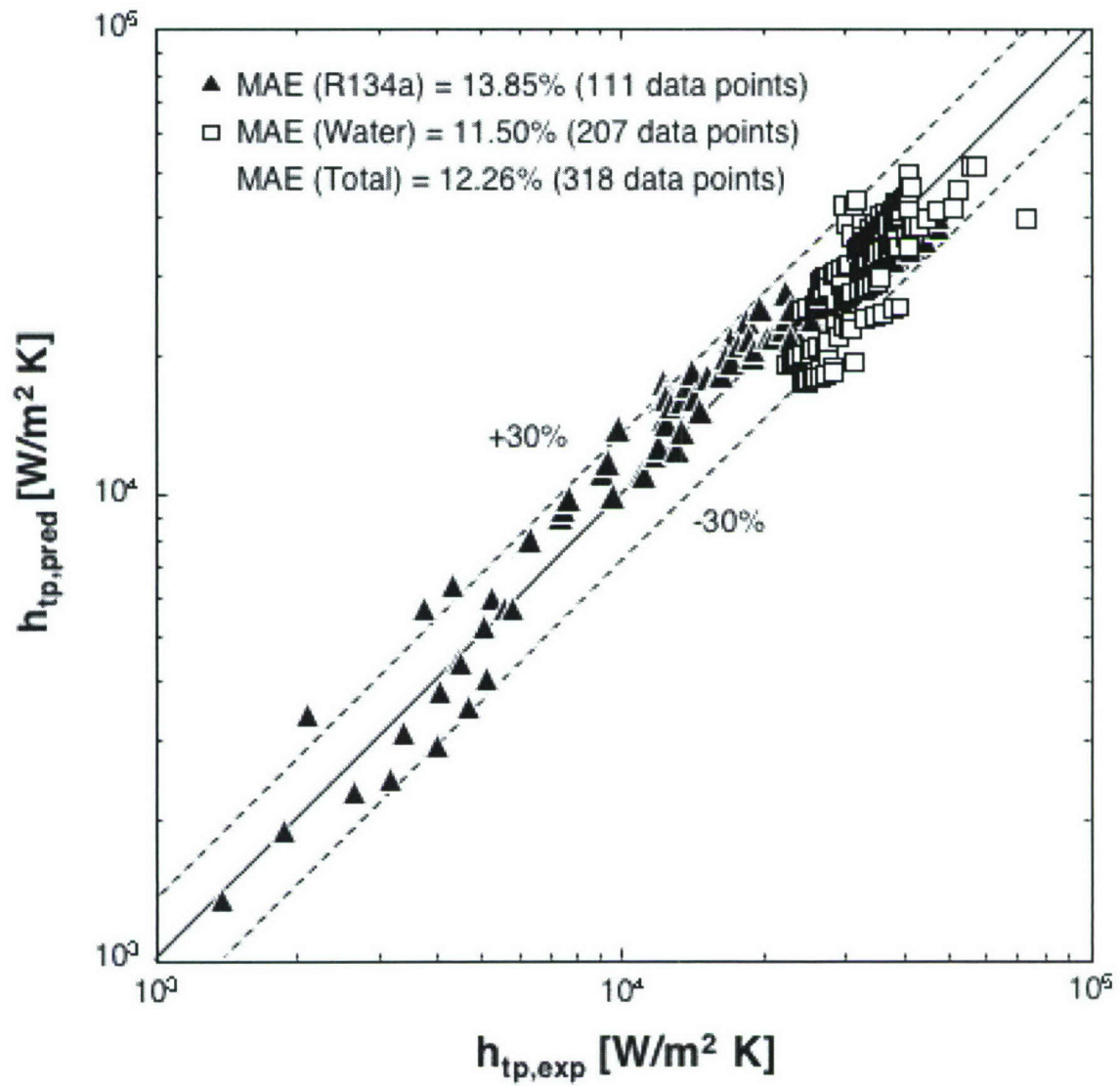


Figure I.4.8 Comparison of heat transfer coefficient data for R134 and water with predictions based on new correlation scheme.

I.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF MICRO-CHANNEL HEAT SINK

I.5.1 Experimental Results

A key parameter for assessment of the micro-channel heat sink's cooling performance is the measured heat sink temperature, T_{tc} . As illustrated in Fig. I.4.1, this temperature was measured by a type-K thermocouple situated a short distance beneath the base of the micro-channels halfway along the heat sink. The fluid at the same axial location is in saturated state for all operating conditions. Figure I.5.1 shows variations of the heat sink temperature and saturation temperature with mass velocity for four different values of evaporator heat load. The saturation temperature was determined from the measured evaporator inlet conditions using a two-phase pressure drop correlation developed at the section I.3. For a fixed evaporator thermal load, the mass velocity was modulated by the throttling valve. Increased throttling at low mass velocities produced appreciable pressure drop across the throttling valve. Both the copper and refrigerant temperatures show mild decreases with decreasing mass velocity, which is followed a big departure between the two temperatures at low mass velocities. When the compressor was operated within its normal capacity range, the copper block temperature curves indicate a minimum optimized cooling point. However, this optimal point is not evident outside the normal range (e.g. for $Q_{evap} = 500$ W).

This trend is closely associated with the transition from wet to dry compression. Figure I.5.2 shows a P - h diagram of the present refrigeration cycle for an evaporator thermal load of 200 W and two mass velocities. At the higher mass velocity of $G = 343$ kg/m²s, the refrigerant exits the evaporator as a two-phase mixture corresponding to wet

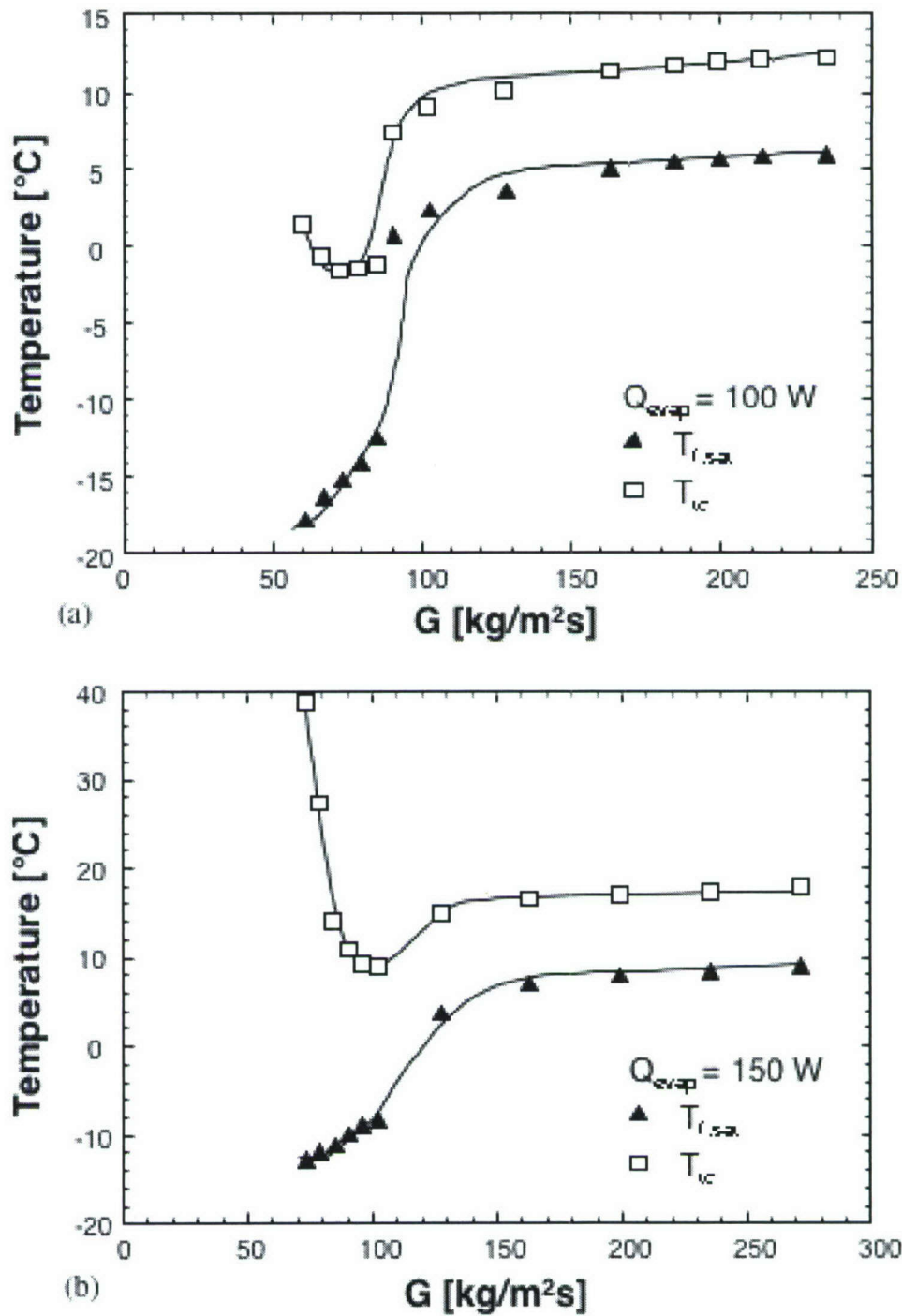


Figure I.5.1 Variation of measured copper and refrigerant temperature with mass velocity for evaporator heat loads of (a) 100, (b) 150, (c) 200, and (d) 500 W.

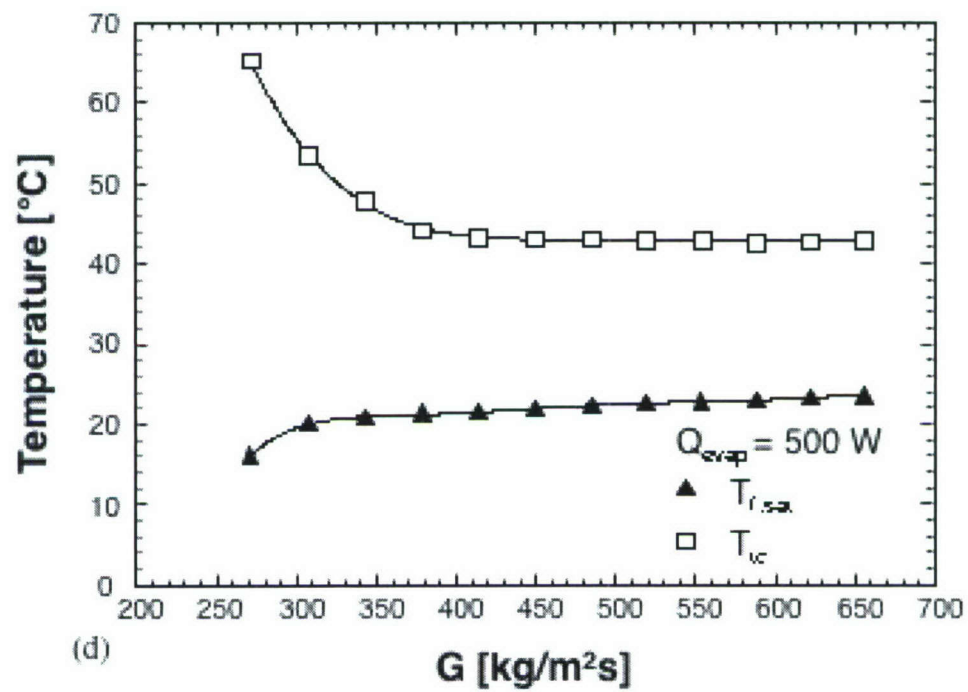
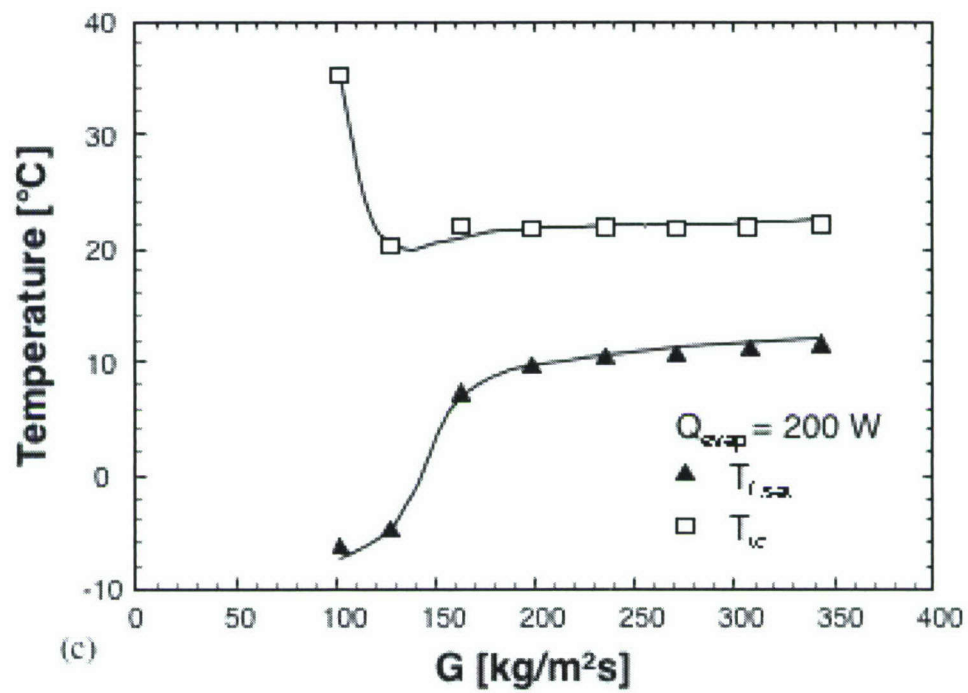


Figure I.5.1 continued.

compression (i.e. with liquid present at the compressor inlet). This condition is undesirable for most compressors. For example, reciprocating compressors are designed to shut down under such wet inlet conditions. On the other hand, rotary compressors can tolerate some wet compression, though their performance may be greatly degraded, let alone the potential damage to their mechanical components. Figure I.5.2 shows the lower mass velocity of $G = 128 \text{ kg/m}^2\text{s}$ producing superheated evaporator outlet conditions and dry compression. The compressor performance in this case is greatly enhanced, producing a far greater compression ratio than with wet compression. For a fixed condenser side temperature, dry compression also causes appreciable reduction in the evaporator side refrigerant temperature compared to wet compression.

Returning to Fig. I.5.1, the copper to fluid temperature difference (measure of thermal resistance of micro-channel heat sink) is fairly constant (less than $0.1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C/W}$ under most evaporator thermal load conditions) for wet compression conditions associated with high mass velocities. However, once dry compression commences as mass velocity is decreased, the thermal resistance begins to increase sharply.

Figure I.5.3 shows the variation of the refrigeration cycle's coefficient of performance (COP) with mass velocity for three evaporator thermal loads. These three cases are within the normal capacity range of the compressor. A far greater COP value is achieved for thermal loads that are higher than the normal range (e.g. $Q_{\text{evap}} = 500 \text{ W}$). COP is defined here as the ratio of evaporator thermal load to compressor power consumption. COP is highly degraded for wet compression conditions associated with high mass velocities, and greatly enhanced with dry compression at low mass velocities. Notice, however, that further reduction in mass velocity causes a slight decline in COP, especially notable for $Q_{\text{evap}} = 100 \text{ W}$. This can be explained by the greater superheat at the compressor inlet producing a larger specific volume of vapor, which requires greater compressor power for the same compression rate, i.e. yields a lower COP.

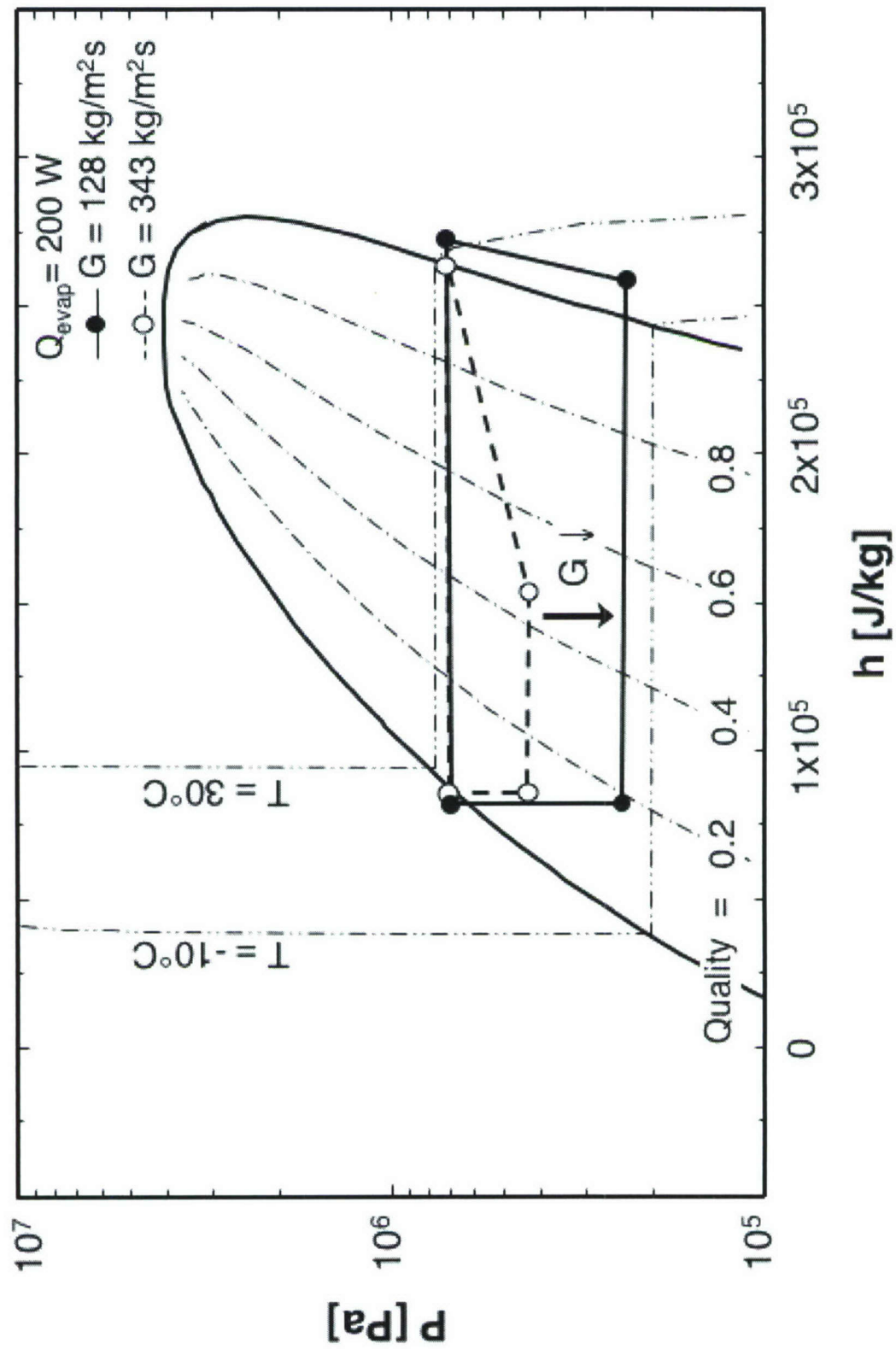


Figure I.5.2 Pressure-enthalpy (P - h) diagram for two evaporator mass velocities.

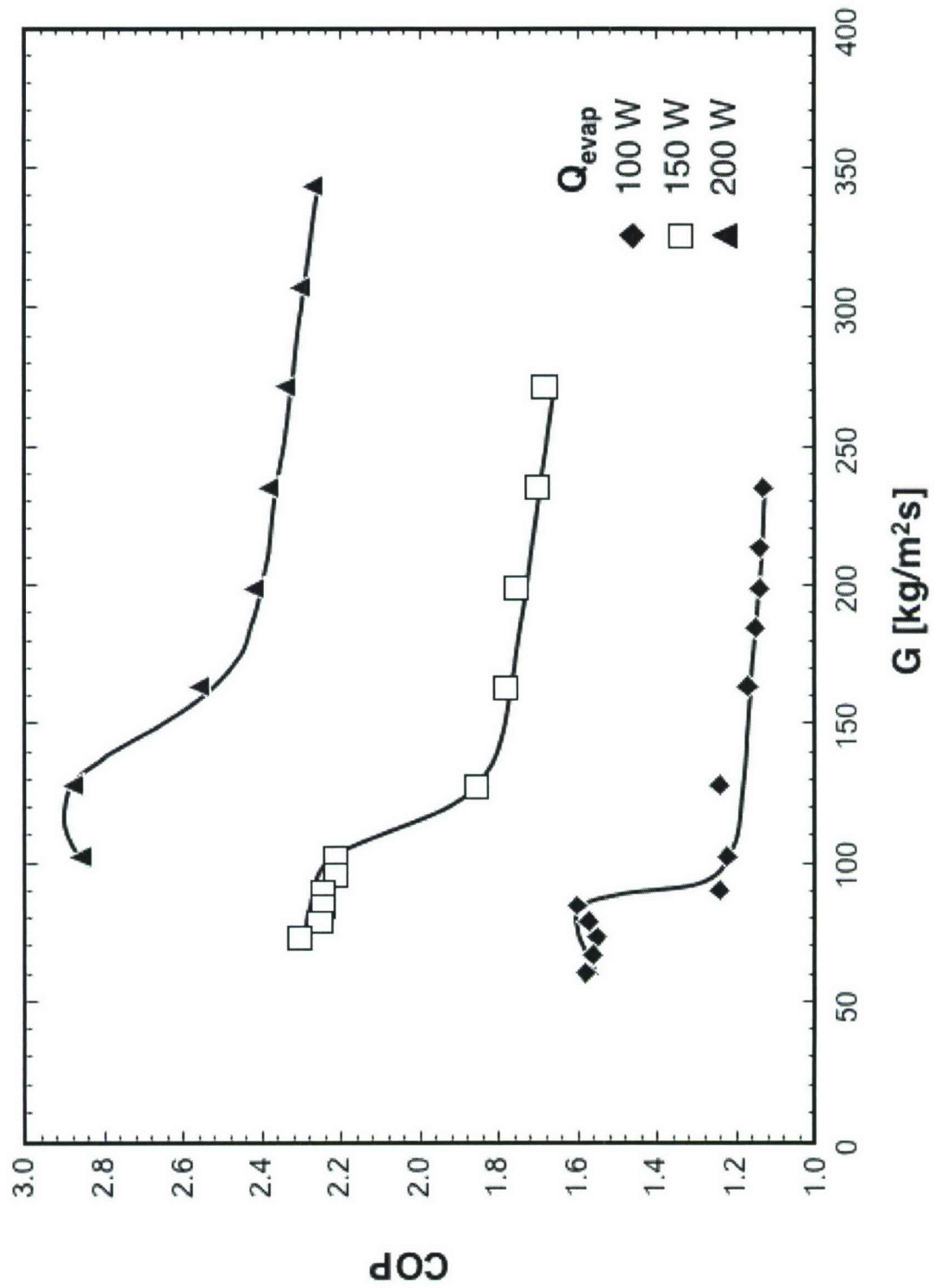


Figure I.5.3 Variation of cycle COP with mass velocity for three evaporator heat loads.

One may speculate a similar reduction in COP due to the increased specific volume caused by the relatively large pressure drop of a two-phase micro-channel evaporator. While the pressure drop per unit length is much greater for a micro-channel than for a conventional evaporator, it should be emphasized that the evaporator in this study is intended as a heat sink for a relatively short electronic device, so the evaporator pressure drop is fairly small even if the pressure gradient is large. This implies the effect of evaporator pressure drop on cycle performance is negligible. The P - h diagram in Fig. I.5.2 clearly demonstrates this point.

Overall, the compressor suction (inlet) condition poses a fundamental challenge to implementing micro-channel refrigeration cooling in electronic applications. On one hand, higher heat removal rates are possible with a lower evaporator exit quality, i.e. wet compression. On the other hand, optimum cycle performance and compressor reliability favor dry compression. Furthermore, heat dissipation from an electronic device is not constant during normal device operation. This points to the need to incorporate an adaptive control system (e.g. using a thermostatic expansion valve) to maintain minimal superheat at the compressor inlet.

I.5.2 Heat Sink Temperature Distribution

Aside from the need to remove the heat dissipated from an electronic device, the device temperature must be maintained as low and uniform as possible in order to minimize thermal stresses that can trigger mechanical failure. Since it is quite difficult to measure the temperature distribution along the heat sink, this distribution was inferred using correlations for two-phase pressure drop and heat transfer coefficient that were developed from previous chaptr I.3 and I.4. The thermodynamic equilibrium quality at any distance z along a micro-channel was calculated from equation (I.2.1) by replacing total length L to locan length z . The local refrigerant saturation temperature was obtained from the saturated pressure determined from the pressure drop model.

Figure I.5.4 shows the calculated variations of quality, x_e , two-phase heat transfer coefficient, h_{tp} , and heat-sink base-wall temperature, $T_{w,b}$ (see Fig. I.2.4) along the flow direction for a total evaporator thermal load of $Q_{evap} = 200$ W and three different values of mass velocity. The local heat transfer coefficient decreases monotonically along the heat sink. Irregularities in this variation are due to the use of discrete correlations for h_{tp} corresponding to different quality regions. The heat transfer coefficient is highest at the inlet where liquid is abundant, and decreases sharply in the high quality region, corresponding to localized wall dryout and superheated flow ($x_e > 1$), where the heat is removed mostly by the vapor. Notice the appreciable increase in wall temperature in the high quality region, especially when the evaporator outlet is superheated (Fig. I.5.4 (c)). Considering heat sinks are relatively short and made from high conductivity material, the sharp increase in wall temperature depicted in Fig. I.5.4 (c) for a superheated outlet should be greatly dampened with an actual electronic device. As shown in Fig. I.5.4 (c), the area-averaged wall temperature, defined as

$$\bar{T}_{w,b} = \frac{\int_0^L T_{w,b} dz}{L}, \quad (\text{I.5.1})$$

is much smaller than the outlet temperature. Nonetheless, the localized temperature excursion towards the outlet must be minimized to avoid high thermal stresses. In other words, it is important to pursue acceptable outlet quality values while minimizing the temperature gradient along the heat sink.

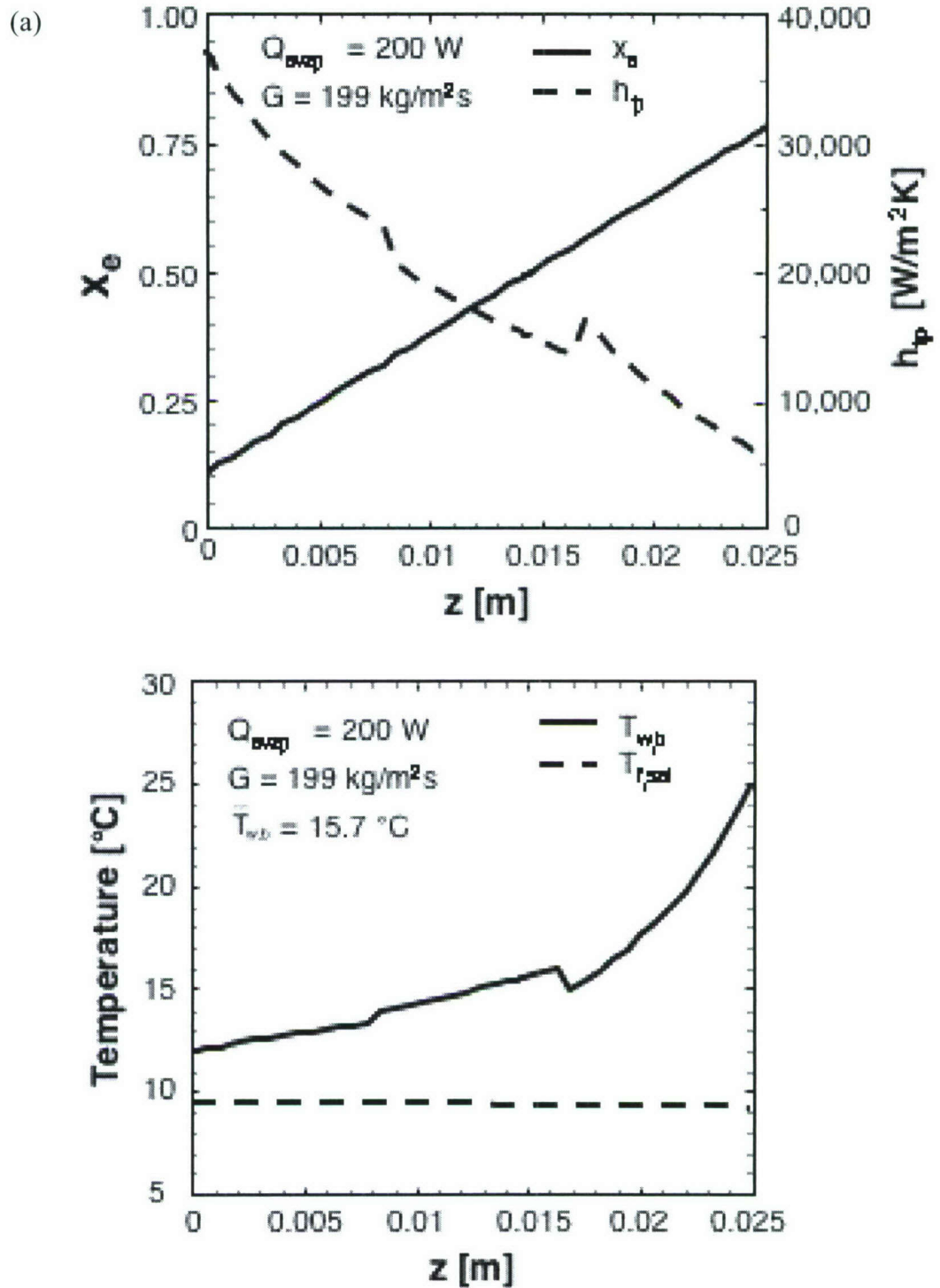


Figure I.5.4 Predicted variations of quality, two-phase heat transfer coefficient and channel base temperature along micro-channel for evaporator heat load of 200 W and mass velocities of (a) 199, (b) 163, and (c) 128 kg/m²·s.

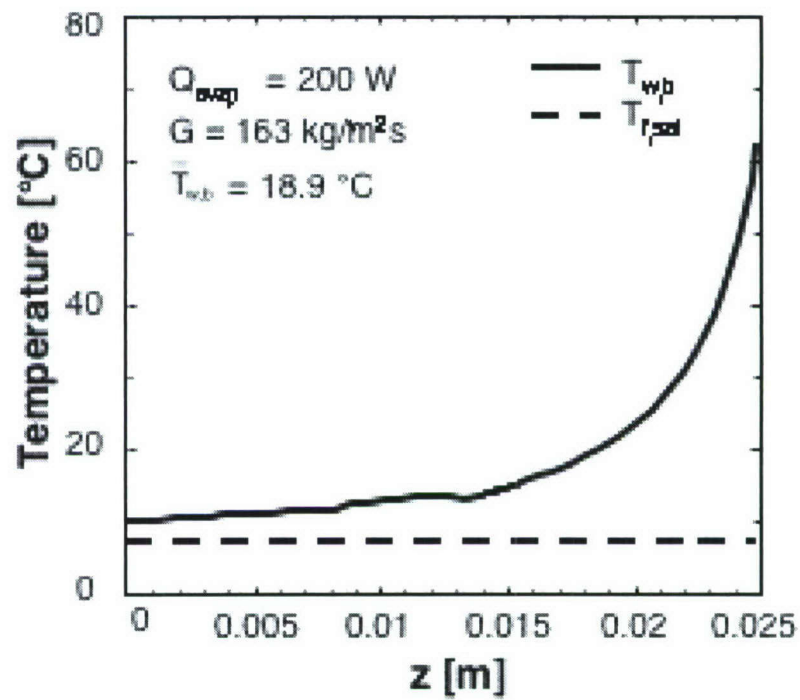
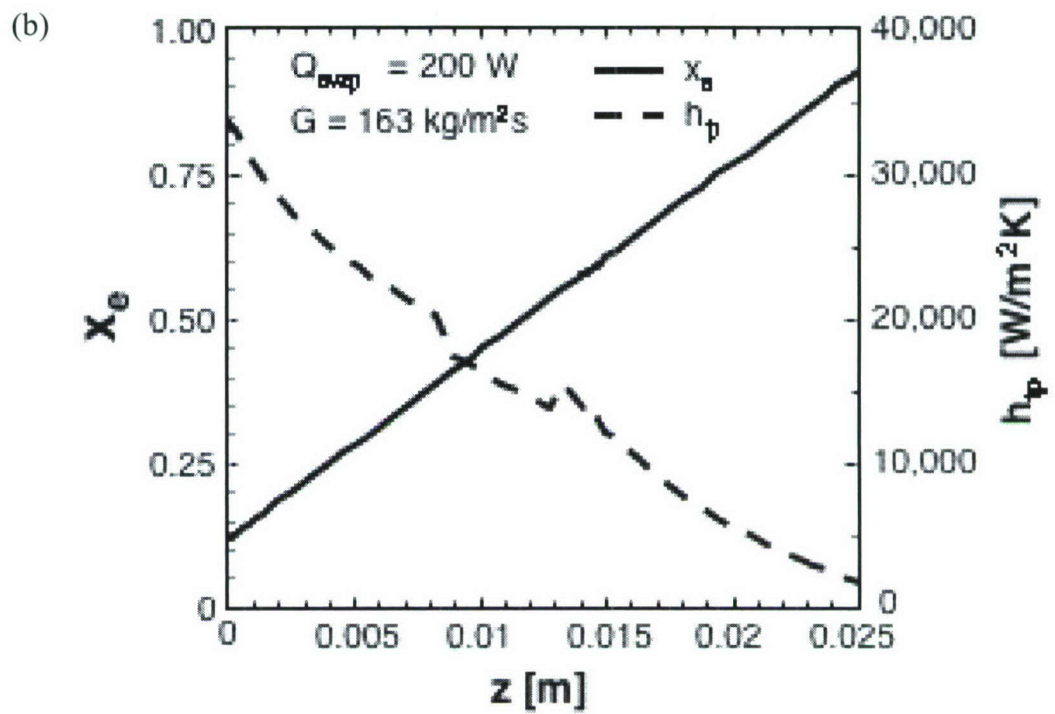


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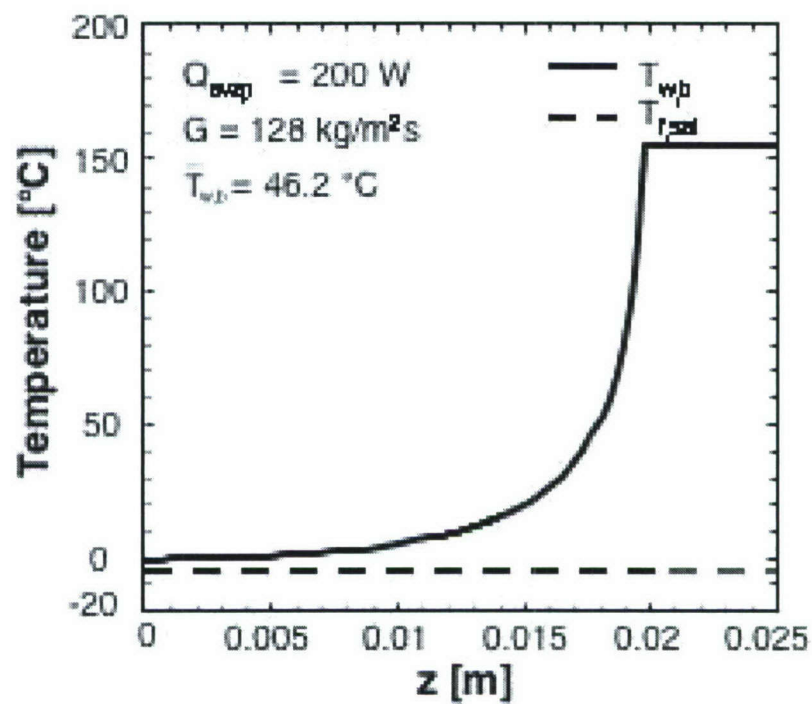
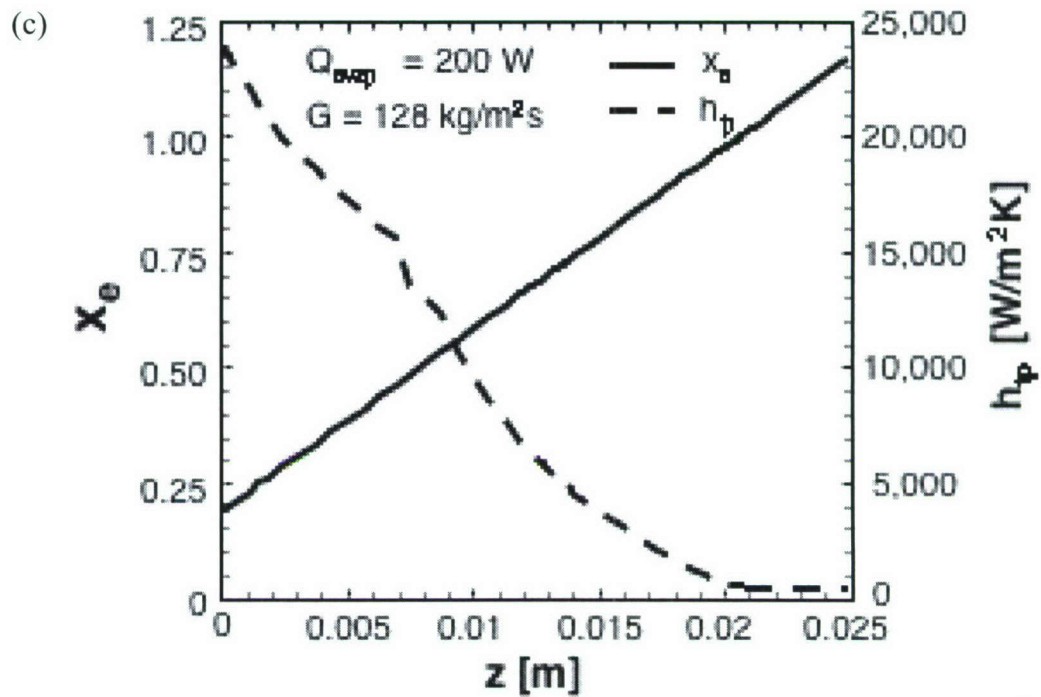


Figure I.5.4 continued.

I.5.3 Parametric Effects of Micro-Channel Geometry on Heat Sink Performance

To explore the effects of the heat sink's geometrical parameters on cooling effectiveness, several externally determined operating conditions were held constant. First, the heat sink was configured to cool a $2.53 \times 2.53 \text{ cm}^2$ device surface dissipating a uniform heat flux of $q'' = 100 \text{ W/cm}^2$ (total evaporator heat load of 640 W). Furthermore, refrigerant R134a was assumed to enter the evaporator at $P_{in} = 2.5 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$ as a two-phase mixture with a quality of $x_{e,in} = 0.05$. To ensure proper compressor operation (dry compression) and a good COP while precluding appreciable outlet wall temperature rise, the evaporator outlet quality was set at $x_{e,out} = 1.01$. Equation (I.2.1) was used to determine the mass velocity required to yield this outlet quality value. Finally, the parametric study employed a channel wall thickness equal to the channel width.

Figure I.5.5 (a) shows the effects of channel hydraulic diameter on heat sink performance for a fixed channel aspect ratio. Lower mean wall temperatures are achieved by decreasing the hydraulic diameter. However, this advantage is realized with a penalty of increased pressure drop. Figure I.5.5 (b) shows the effects of aspect ratio for a constant hydraulic diameter. Notice, the advantages of reducing both mean wall temperature and pressure drop are realized concurrently by increasing the aspect ratio.

Figure I.5.6 shows the effects of channel width for a fixed channel height. Figure I.5.6 (a) shows reducing the channel width for a fixed height decreases the hydraulic diameter while increasing the aspect ratio. Figure I.5.6 (b) shows decreasing channel width produces the desired decrease in mean wall temperature, brought about mainly by reducing the hydraulic diameter. By maintaining a high aspect ratio, the same decrease in channel width is shown yielding only a modest increase in pressure drop. These findings point to a very important tactic in designing micro-channel evaporators: using narrow micro-channels with a high aspect ratio.

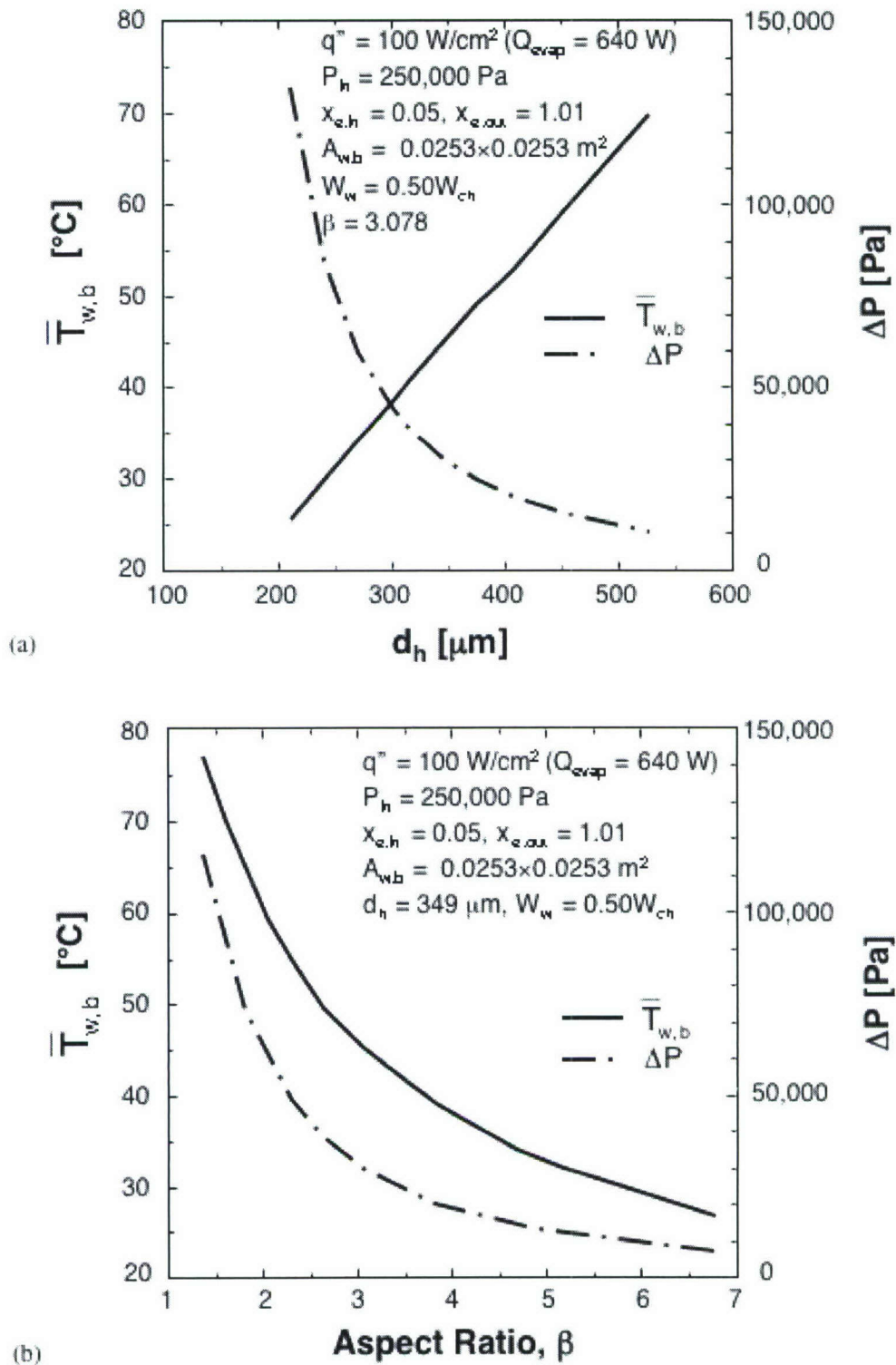


Figure I.5.5 Variations of mean micro-channel base temperature and pressure drop with (a) hydraulic diameter and (b) channel aspect ratio.

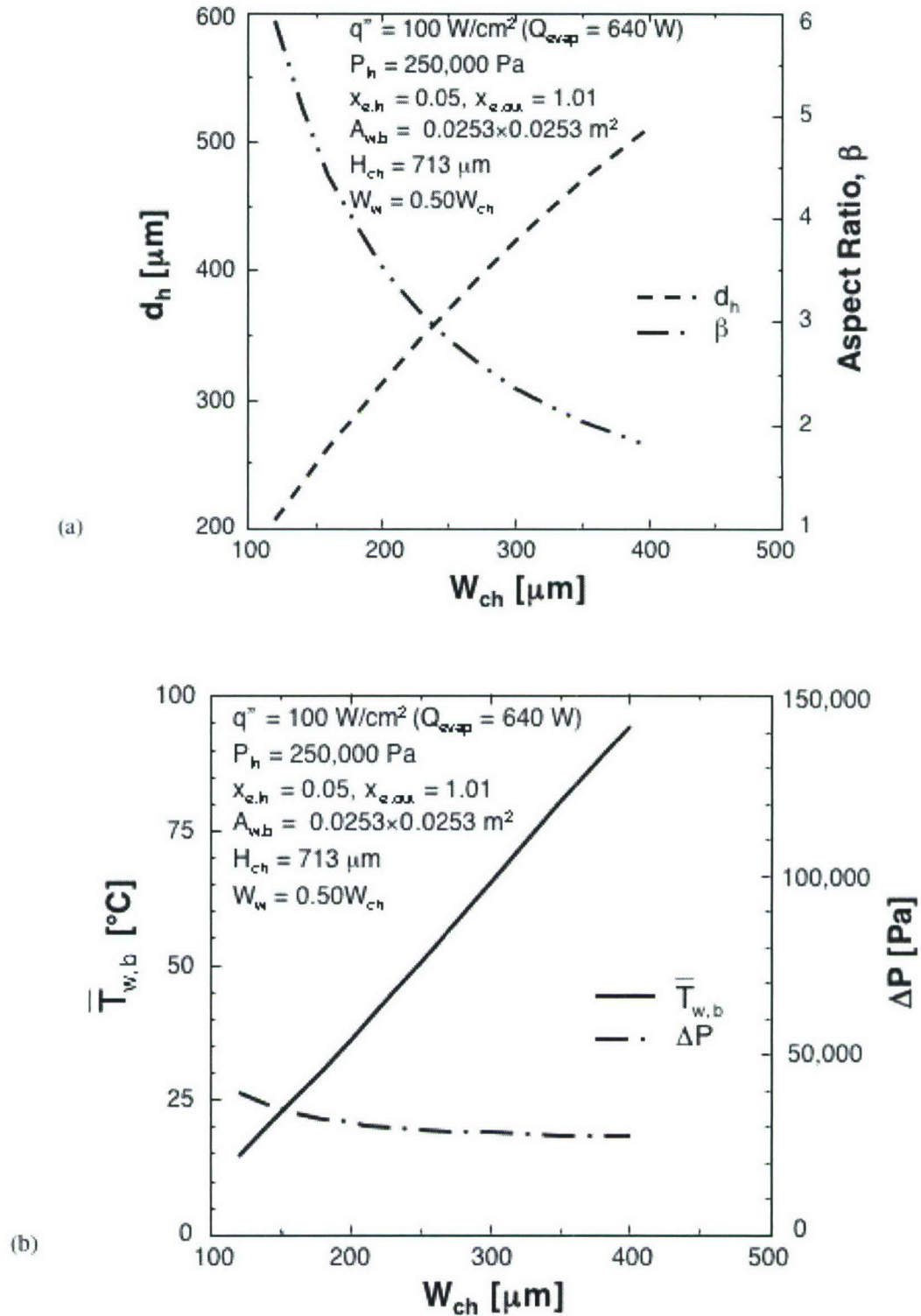


Figure I.5.6 (a) Variations of hydraulic diameter and aspect ratio with channel width for constant channel height. (b) Variations of mean channel base temperature and pressure drop with channel width for constant channel height.

I.6 CONCLUSIONS

I.6.1 Two-phase Pressure Drop in Micro-Channel

The pressure drop characteristics were investigated experimentally for a heat sink with parallel rectangular micro-channels that served as an evaporator in an R134a refrigeration cycle. Both homogeneous equilibrium and separated flow models were assessed for accuracy in predicting the new data, and a new correlation was developed to improve the overall predictive capability of the latter. Key findings from the study are as follows:

- (1) Using several popular two-phase viscosity models, the homogenous equilibrium model generally underpredicted the present R134a data.
- (2) Popular macro-channel separated flow model correlations generally yielded better predictions of pressure drop than some recent small-channel correlations.
- (3) Since two-phase flow in high-flux micro-channel heat sinks is predominantly slug or annular, a new correlation was developed that was based on the separated flow model. The new correlation incorporates the effects of liquid inertia, viscous force and surface tension on the two-phase pressure drop multiplier. Excellent agreement is achieved between pressure drop predictions based on the new correlation and both present R134a data and prior micro-channel water data.
- (4) The total pressure drop generally increases with increasing mass velocity and/or heat flux. However, there is appreciable diminution in this increase where complete conversion to vapor takes place inside the micro-channels.
- (5) The throttling valve in a refrigeration cycle offers important benefits to the operation of a micro-channel evaporator. By stiffening the system against interactions between the two-phase flow in the evaporator and the upstream compressible volume, the

throttling valve serves to suppress any large pressure oscillations, allowing only mild parallel channel instability to take place.

I.6.2 Boiling Heat Transfer in Micro-Channel

Experiments were performed to explore the heat transfer characteristics of a micro-channel heat sink incorporated as an evaporator in a refrigeration cycle. Flow visualization studies at different quality values were used along with heat transfer coefficient data to develop a new correlation scheme for micro-channel flow that was validated for both R134a and water. Key findings from the study are as follows:

- (1) Two-phase heat transfer in micro-channel heat sinks is associated with different mechanisms for low, medium and high quality flows. Bubbly flow and nucleate boiling occur only at low qualities ($x_e < 0.05$) corresponding to very low heat fluxes. High fluxes produce medium quality ($0.05 < x_e < 0.55$) or high quality ($0.55 < x_e < 1.0$) flows (depending on flow rate), where the heat transfer is dominated by annular film evaporation. Because of the large differences in heat transfer mechanism between the three quality regions, better predictions are possible by dividing the quality range into smaller ranges corresponding to these flow transitions.
- (2) While the Martinelli parameter commonly used in macro-channel correlations is important to each of the three quality ranges, accurate correlation of data for different coolants requires incorporating the effects of boiling number and Weber number for the medium quality range.
- (3) A new three-range two-phase heat transfer coefficient correlation is recommended which shows excellent predictive capability for both R134a and water.

I.6.3 System Implementation

This study was performed to explore optimum conditions for incorporating a micro-channel heat sink as an evaporator in a refrigeration loop. Experimental measurements and numerical results were used to assess the thermal performance of the heat sink in relation to the performance of the refrigeration cycle. Key conclusions from the study are as follows:

- (1) Utilizing a micro-channel heat sink as an evaporator in refrigeration loop provides several important thermal benefits such as high-flux dissipation, low surface-to-coolant resistance, and most importantly low device temperature.
- (2) Higher heat transfer coefficients are possible with greater mass velocities. However, greater mass velocities are typically associated with wet compression conditions corresponding to evaporator exit quality below unity and liquid entrainment at the compressor inlet. Wet compression compromises compressor performance and reliability as well as refrigeration cycle efficiency. Wet compression must therefore be minimized by maintaining only slightly superheated conditions at the compressor inlet, or using a wet-compression-tolerant compressor.
- (3) Another thermal disadvantage of a superheated evaporator outlet is the likelihood of a localized increase in the solid wall temperature towards the outlet, which can cause large thermal stresses at the same location. Practical solutions are therefore needed to develop systems which are both wet compression tolerant and that include adaptive flow control to maintain the desired evaporator outlet quality.
- (4) A parametric study of the effects of channel geometry on heat sink performance points to channels with small width and high aspect ratio as yielding superior thermal performance corresponding to only a modest penalty in pressure drop.

PART II. MICRO-CHANNEL HEAT SINK FOR INDIRECT REFRIGERATION COOLING

II.1 INTRODUCTION

II.1.1 System and Flow Visualization

Aggressive pursuit of faster signal speed and superior performance of electronic devices has precipitated unprecedented increases in heat dissipation at all levels of electronics packaging, device, module and system. New innovative cooling methods are therefore required to remove the dissipated heat. Today, localized heat dissipation from advanced microprocessors has already exceeded 100 W/cm^2 , while high-end defense applications such as lasers, microwave devices, and radars are beginning to exceed 1000 W/cm^2 (Mudawar, 2001). Another primary function of an electronics cooling system is to maintain device temperature below a limit that is set by both material and reliability concerns. This limit varies with application, from 85°C for commercial microprocessors to about 125°C for defense electronics (Mudawar, 2001).

Any high-flux liquid-cooled electronic module can be characterized by an overall thermal resistance between device and ambient (typically room air). This resistance is the sum of all conductive resistances of materials comprising the electronic package as well as the convective resistances of coolant internal to the package as well as the ultimate ambient cooling fluid. Advances in both material and packaging have greatly reduced the overall thermal resistance of the package. Similar aggressive efforts are underway to reduce the internal convective resistance using such powerful cooling schemes as micro-channel flow and jet impingement, especially where the coolant undergoes phase change.

The difficulty implementing even the most aggressive and powerful cooling schemes is that, for fixed overall resistance and ambient temperature, device temperature increases fairly linearly with increasing heat dissipation rate. This relationship is especially problematic for defense electronics, where dissipating say 1000 W/cm^2 would bring the device well above its maximum temperature limit. To circumvent this problem, direct or indirect low temperature cooling systems could facilitate appreciable reduction in the temperature of coolant inside the electronic package, and, hence, in the temperature of the device itself.

During the past few years, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of commercial systems that capitalize on low temperature cooling (Peeples, *et al.*, 2000, Schmidt and Notohardjono, 2002). The most popular of those is the vapor compression refrigeration system, which features high mechanical reliability and good ratio of temperature drop to thermal capacity. Even lower temperatures are possible with cryogenic cooling systems such as Joule-Thomson, Stirling cycle, pulse tube, thermo-acoustic, Gifford McMahon and submerged liquid cryogen. Aside from their cooling merits, cryogenic temperatures provide the benefits of better reliability and enhanced performance (Kirschman, 1985). In fact, much faster switching time has been clocked with devices at 100 K compared to those at above ambient temperature. However, a key drawback to cryogenic cooling systems is very low thermal capacity, let alone high cost. These drawbacks render vapor compression systems the most feasible choice for applications demanding low temperature cooling. These systems possess good thermal capacity and can yield cooling temperatures from 0 to -100°C .

Two types of refrigeration cooling systems are possible. The first involves incorporating the cooling module as an evaporator in the vapor compression cycle. In other words, the refrigerant serves as primary coolant for the electronic device. This configuration can be classified as *direct refrigeration cooling*. The second involves rejecting the heat from the primary coolant via a heat exchanger to refrigerant flowing in a separate vapor compression cycle. This configuration can be classified as *indirect refrigeration cooling*, and is the focus of the present study.

Recently, the author of the present study proposed a new direct refrigeration cooling system incorporating a micro-channel evaporator inside which the electronic device is cooled by the refrigerant (Lee and Mudawar, 2005a, 2005b, 2006). Using R-134a as working fluid, their study yielded convective heat transfer coefficients comparable to those for water, which has far better thermal transport properties than R-134a (Lee and Mudawar, 2005b). However, compromises had to be made between enhancing the evaporator's performance and the performance of the cycle as a whole. On one hand, enhancing the evaporator's thermal performance while avoiding dryout favors reducing the evaporator's exit quality. However, this may compromise the performance of the compressor, which favors dry superheated evaporator exit conditions (Lee and Mudawar, 2006). A practical solution was recommended that involved the use of a thermal load control device (*e.g.*, thermostatic expansion valve) to ensure only slightly superheated vapor conditions at the compressor inlet.

The present study concerns the second, indirect refrigeration cooling configuration. A key advantage of this configuration over the direct refrigeration configuration is that it decouples the quality requirements of the micro-channel heat sink from those of the compressor in the vapor compression cycle. Two advantages are readily realized with this decoupling. First, the aforementioned compressor problems are completely eliminated. Second, by sizing the vapor compression cycle separately, the cooling system can be designed to simultaneously handle both the required heat rejection capacity and heat rejection temperature. The present study centers on the performance of the micro-channel heat sink using a properly sized indirect refrigeration cooling system.

Using indirect refrigeration cooling, there is greater control over two-phase behavior inside the micro-channel. While two-phase flow inside a direct-refrigeration-cooled micro-channel evaporator is predominantly annular, indirect cooling can maintain even highly subcooled flow boiling conditions, which can greatly enhance convective heat transfer coefficient and delay critical heat flux (CHF).

The earlier part of present study describes the indirect refrigeration cooling system and experimental methods used. Also discussed in this part is flow boiling behavior that is captured with the aid of high-speed video imaging and photomicrography. Using four differently sized micro-channel heat sinks and broad ranges of operating conditions, the captured two-phase behavior is used to identify dominant mechanisms at heat fluxes up to an including CHF. This behavior is also used in the consecutive part of the study for assessment of existing pressure drop and heat transfer coefficient correlations and model development.

II.1.2 Subcooled Boiling Pressure Drop and Heat Transfer

II.1.2.1 Application of Subcooled Flow Boiling for Hig-Flux Cooling

Flow boiling is known for its ability to produce very high convective heat transfer coefficients, which is why it is widely used in many applications demanding high-flux heat removal. Two main regimes are possible with flow boiling, subcooled and saturated; each is also made up of sub-regimes. Subcooled and saturated boiling can occur concurrently in a long heated channel if the incoming fluid is supplied below saturation temperature corresponding to the inlet pressure. With an inlet thermodynamic equilibrium quality below zero, subcooled boiling prevails in the inlet region and as the quality rises along the channel, a point is ultimately reached where transition to saturated boiling takes effect. Because of large differences in void fraction, the heat transfer mechanism for subcooled boiling is categorically different from that for saturated boiling. In the subcooled region, liquid flow is more abundant and phase-change occurs mostly by bubble formation at the wall. High void fractions in saturated boiling are associated with churn, slug and annular flows in which bubble nucleation is gradually replaced by evaporation of a residual liquid film at the heated wall.

In general, higher average heat transfer coefficients are possible with subcooled flow boiling than with saturated. Critical heat flux (CHF) is also greater for subcooled boiling. Furthermore, there are drastic differences in CHF mechanism between the two

regimes. Subcooled CHF (commonly referred to as “departure from nucleate boiling” or DNB for short) is often the result of localized vapor blanket formation along the heated wall even while liquid is abundant in the core. On the other hand, CHF in saturated boiling occurs in a predominantly liquid deficient region, and is usually the result of dryout of the annular liquid film.

Clearly, subcooled boiling is quite advantageous for high-flux applications. This regime can be achieved in a variety of ways, the two most common are increasing mass velocity and increasing liquid subcooling at the inlet. Channel geometry can also have a strong effect on the extent of the subcooled boiling region. For example, channels with small length-to-diameter ratio are more likely to maintain subcooled boiling.

As discussed in the previous chapter, the recent advances in microelectronics have triggered unprecedented increases in heat dissipation. This trend has spurred the development of many types of phase-change cooling schemes that are aimed at both removing the heat and maintaining low surface temperatures. Micro-channel heat sinks have emerged as one of the most effective thermal solutions, given their compactness and ability to produce very high heat transfer coefficients while demanding low coolant flow rates and small coolant inventory.

Early micro-channel studies were focused mainly on single-phase flow. An often-cited study by Tuckerman and Pease (1981) proved such devices could dissipate up to 790 W/cm^2 from a simulated electronic heat source using water as working fluid. Interestingly, flow boiling in micro-channels has been the subject of intense study since the mid-1970s at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Energy Laboratory for cooling of electrodes in magnetohydrodynamic energy converters and turbine blades (Mudawar, *et al.*, 1985). A fairly large number of studies of flow boiling in micro-channels have been published since the mid-1990s (*e.g.*, Bowers and Mudawar, 1994a, 1994b, 1994c, Mudawar and Bowers, 1999, Lee and Lee, 2001a, 2001b, Yu, *et al.*, 2002, Qu and Mudawar, 2002, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c, Lee and Mudawar, 2005a, 2005b). Mudawar and Bowers (1999) showed highly subcooled and high mass velocity flow

boiling of water in small diameter tubes could safely dissipate heat fluxes as high as $27,000 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

The present study suggests an indirect refrigeration cooling scheme where the primary coolant inside the micro-channel heat sink is brought to very low temperature at the micro-channel inlet in order to maintain highly subcooled conditions. Despite the small hydraulic diameter of the micro-channels, the low coolant temperature was shown to preserve subcooled boiling along much of the micro-channel length, especially at high mass velocities.

The primary objectives of this part of the study are to:

- (1) Explore the parametric trends of subcooled boiling pressure drop and heat transfer.
- (2) Evaluate the effectiveness of previous correlations in predicting the new data.
- (3) Develop more accurate correlations for both pressure drop and heat transfer.
- (4) Develop mechanistic models for both pressure drop and heat transfer.

II.1.2.2 Thermodynamic Considerations in Subcooled Flow Boiling

As indicated in the previous section, subcooled flow boiling occurs when liquid is supplied into a heated channel in subcooled state. Single-phase heat transfer to liquid occurs over a finite length of the channel until bubbles begin to form along the wall, indicating transition to subcooled boiling. As core liquid temperature continues to rise along the channel, transition to saturated boiling ultimately ensues. Because of strong departure from thermodynamic equilibrium, predicting subcooled boiling is a very challenging endeavor, especially in the ability to develop reliable models for pressure drop and heat transfer.

Figure II.1.1 shows a simplified schematic of the transitions from single-phase cooling to saturated boiling. Following a classification by Collier and Thome (1994), the subcooled boiling region is comprised of two zones. The first is a *highly subcooled*

zone whose upstream edge corresponds to the onset of boiling, z_{ONB} . Within this zone, bubbles are able to form but show minor growth while still attached to the wall. Suppressed bubble growth in this zone is the result of a thermal balance between superheat effects at the wall and condensation along the bubble interface. A second *developed subcooled zone* begins at z_{bd} at which bubbles begin to detach into the liquid flow where they condense slightly but are able to endure and even coalesce with one another. The second zone extends downstream to the location where thermodynamic equilibrium quality, defined as

$$x_e = \frac{h_f - h_{f,sat}}{h_{fg}}, \quad (\text{II.1.1})$$

reaches zero. This location marks the upstream edge of the saturated boiling region. A key distinction between the highly subcooled zone and developed subcooled zone is that void fraction is a wall effect for the first and a bulk flow effect for the second.

The existence of the two subcooled zones will be verified in the flow visualization experiments. In these experiments, bubbles upstream of the departure point showed mild thermal growth while sliding along the wall. Downstream of the departure point, bubbles grew in size and were able to detach and coalesce with one another.

II.1.2.3 General Trends of Subcooled Boiling Pressure Drop

As subcooled liquid heat ups along the wall of a heated channel, its viscosity decreases. Increasing the wall heat flux causes further reduction in liquid viscosity. Therefore, pressure drop associated with pure liquid flow decreases with increasing wall heat flux. The trend changes significantly when vapor begins to form. Here, increasing wall heat flux increases both the two-phase frictional and accelerational gradients of pressure drop. Pressure drop therefore begins to increase with increasing heat flux. These trends are illustrated in Fig. II.1.2 in the form of a normalized plot of

pressure drop versus wall heat flux. The pressure drop, ΔP , for a given wall heat flux is normalized with respect to pressure drop corresponding to adiabatic flow, ΔP_{ad} ($q'' = 0$). Wall heat flux is normalized with respect to the value q''_{sat} of heat flux required to bring thermodynamic equilibrium quality of the flow to zero at the channel exit, where

$$q''_{sat} = \frac{\dot{m} c_{p,f} (T_{sat} - T_{in})}{A_{base}} . \quad (II.1.2)$$

Tong *et al.* (1997) indicated the onset of nucleate boiling (ONB) does not coincide exactly with the point of minimum pressure drop in Fig. II.1.2, and ONB generally occurs at a lower heat flux. One possible explanation for this offset is the existence of the highly subcooled zone. Because void fraction is quite small in this zone, any increases in two-phase frictional and accelerational pressure gradient are dwarfed by the pressure gradient of liquid, which covers a large fraction of wall area in the highly subcooled zone. The situation is quite different after the point of vapor departure, where the two-phase frictional and accelerational pressure gradients begin to increase substantially because of a large increase in void fraction.

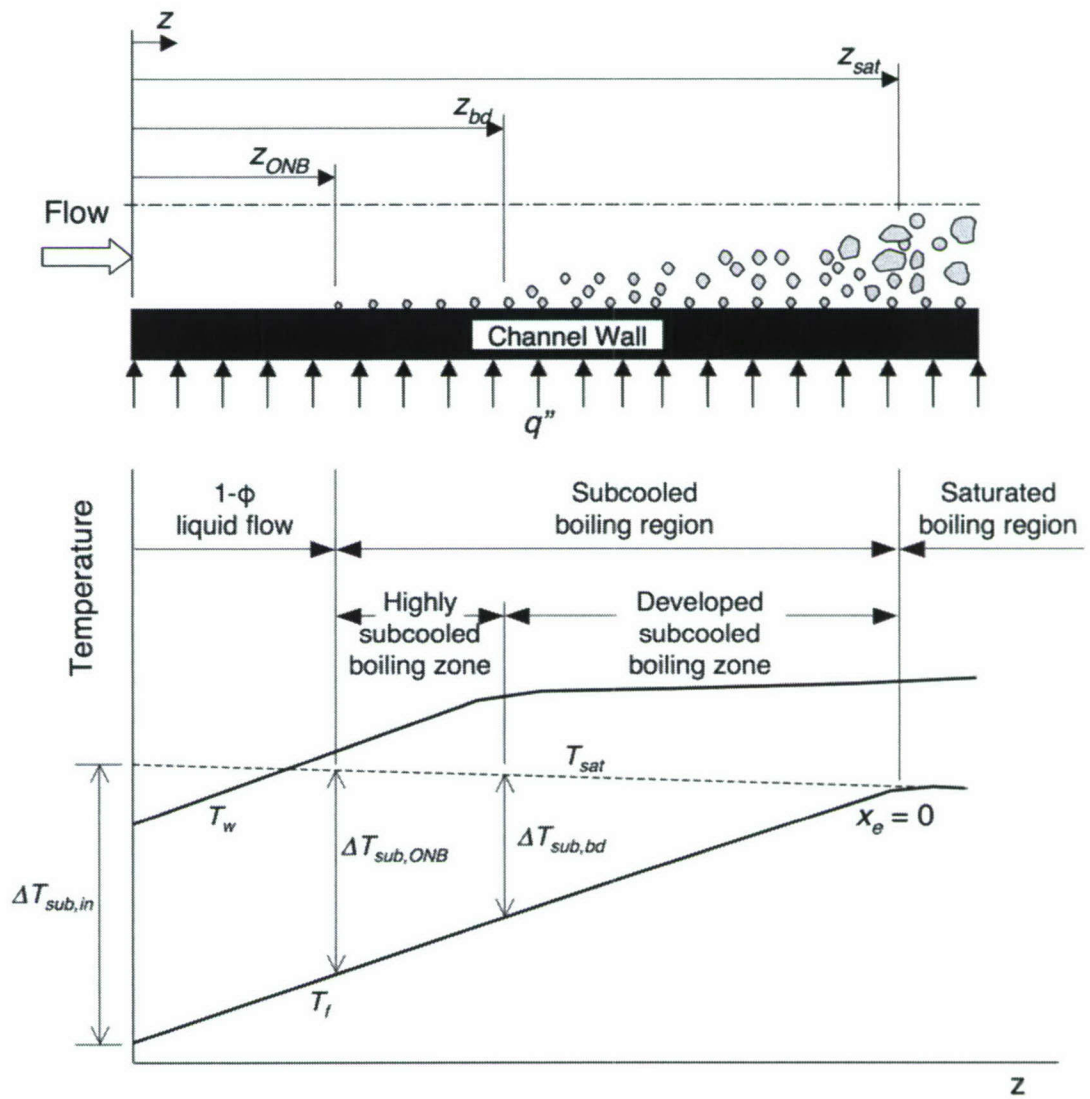


Fig. II.1.1 Schematic representation of subcooled boiling zones.

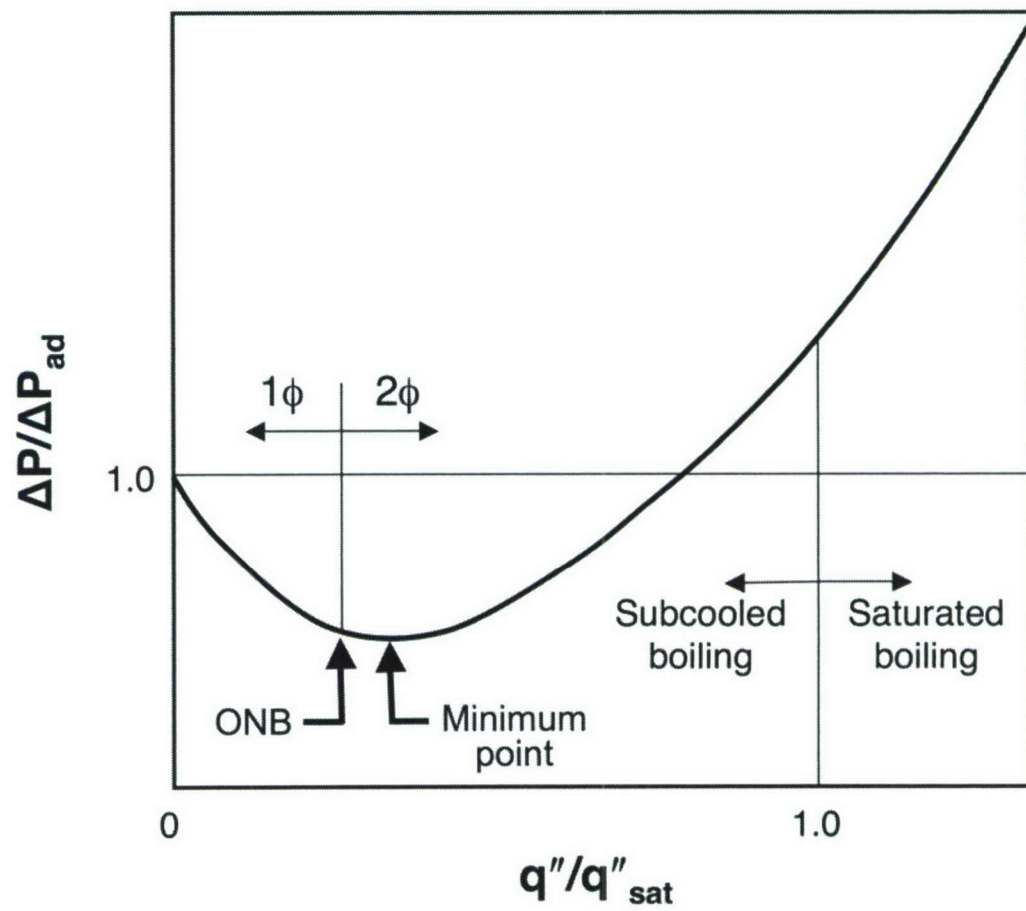


Fig. II.1.2 Normalized plot of pressure drop versus wall heat flux for subcooled boiling.

II.1.3 Two-phase Flow Model for Subcooled Boiling Pressure Drop

The present study concerns highly subcooled flow boiling, where sub-zero quality is preserved even as the fluid exits the micro-channels. Here, vapor is formed by nucleation at the wall with a highly subcooled liquid core flow. Severe departure from thermodynamic equilibrium renders modeling of two-phase flow in this case highly elusive.

Pressure drop is a key parameter in the design of a two-phase cooling system. Pressure drop in subcooled flow boiling consists of frictional and accelerational components, and the magnitude of each is highly dependent on void fraction. Departure from thermodynamic equilibrium greatly complicates the task of relating void fraction to flow quality, which is the primary reason behind the difficulty predicting pressure drop in subcooled flow boiling.

While a few models have been proposed for void fraction in subcooled flow boiling (*e.g.*, Rouhani, 1968, Levi, 1967, Saha and Zuber, 1974, Kroeger and Zuber, 1968), use of these models have yielded poor predictions of pressure drop, as suggested by Hoffman and Wong (1992). Dormer and Bergles (1969) and Tong *et al.* (1997) developed an alternative approach to predicting pressure drop for macro-channel flows using empirical formulation. However, correlation evaluations in this study yielded poor predictions for micro-channel flows.

The present study is the first attempt at developing a theoretical control-volume-based model for subcooled flow boiling pressure drop. Control-volume-based models have been quite effective at predicting both pressure drop and heat transfer in saturated flow boiling in micro-channel heat sinks (Qu and Mudawar, 2003a, 2003c) as well as flow boiling critical heat flux (Sturgis and Mudawar, 1999). The model proposed in this study is particularly suited for situations involving severe non-equilibrium between the vapor and liquid phases.

II.1.4 Critical Heat Flux in Subcooled versus saturated Flow Boiling

Critical heat flux (CHF) is arguably the most important design limit for systems involving heat dissipation from heat-flux controlled surfaces. The occurrence of CHF is associated with a sudden, large reduction in the heat transfer coefficient, which is caused by the loss of liquid contact with the solid surface upon which evaporation or flow boiling is occurring. Depending on heat flux magnitude, thermophysical properties, and operating conditions, the loss of coolant contact can result in surface overheating, burnout, or some other form of catastrophic system failure; hence the importance designers place on accurately determining the CHF limit.

Electronics cooling is a rather recent application where CHF determination is crucial to the safe design and operation of high performance microprocessors. The transition from air-cooling to single-phase liquid cooling and, ultimately, two-phase cooling has been spurred by an unprecedented rise in chip heat flux, brought about by aggressive integration of an increasing number of electronic components in a single chip. Nowhere is this rise more alarming than in defense electronics, such as those found in directed energy laser and microwave weapons, and in radars. Current developments in these applications point to the need to dissipate as high as 1000 W/cm^2 at the device level as commented before. This task is complicated by the fact that only dielectric coolants are permitted in these applications. Despite their many attractive attributes, such as high dielectric strength and compatibility with most materials comprising an electronic package, these coolants possess relatively poor thermal transport properties. Therefore, every effort must be made to enhance their cooling potential in order to safely dissipate the anticipated high heat fluxes.

Present study suggests a thermal management solution for high-flux defense electronics in which the dielectric coolant HFE 7100 is pre-cooled by a secondary refrigeration cooling system before entering a micro-channel heat sink to which the electronic device is attached. The refrigeration system provides two key benefits. First, it reduces the temperature of the HFE 7100, which helps maintain relatively low

device temperatures when dissipating very high heat fluxes. Second, the low temperature of HFE 7100 helps maintain subcooled flow boiling conditions inside the heat sink, which greatly increases CHF for a given flow rate. This system was capable of dissipating in excess of 700 W/cm^2 .

The present study concerns the determination of CHF for this indirect-refrigeration-cooled micro-channel configuration. Unlike most published two-phase micro-channel studies, which involve saturated boiling, the present cooling configuration involves highly subcooled flow boiling. The key difference between subcooled boiling and saturated boiling is that subcooled boiling occurs at the surface with a bulk liquid temperature below the saturated temperature. With high subcooling, boiling commences when the applied heat flux is capable of superheating liquid adjacent to the surface. Because subcooling is highest in the inlet region of the micro-channel, bubbles near the inlet quickly re-condense at the wall. As the bulk liquid temperature increases along the micro-channel, bubbles are able to grow larger and detach from the surface, mixing into the bulk flow where they undergo partial or full condensation. Condensation greatly reduces the magnitude of void fraction in subcooled compared to saturated boiling. Unlike the drastic flow pattern transitions in saturated flow (bubbly, churn, slug, annular), subcooled flow boiling is dominated by bubbly flow alone. Those differences in flow pattern have a strong bearing on both the mechanism and magnitude of CHF for subcooled versus saturated boiling.

Figure II.1.3 illustrates these differences in CHF mechanism. For saturated flow boiling, large increases in void fraction trigger a succession of flow regimes. The flow eventually culminates in the high void fraction annular flow pattern, where cooling is sustained by evaporation of a thin liquid film along the surface. CHF results from dryout of the liquid film as the surface is exposed directly to the vapor. While the ensuing downstream mist flow provides some cooling by droplet impact with surface, the heat transfer coefficient is drastically smaller than upstream of the dryout point. Dryout typically occurs with low inlet subcoolings, low mass velocities, and large length-to-diameter ratios, and CHF magnitude with dryout is relatively small.

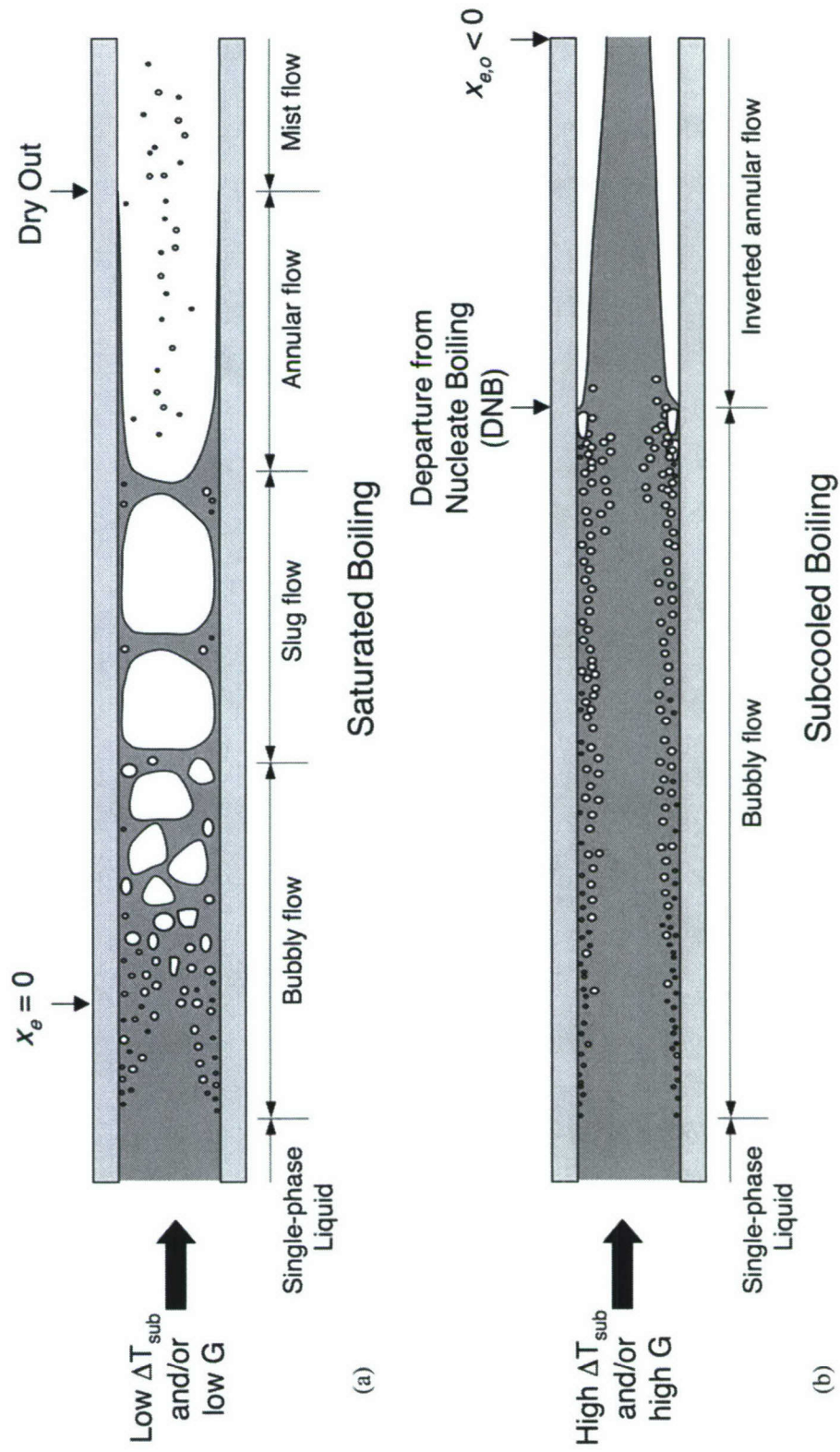


Figure II.1.3 CHF mechanisms for flow boiling in uniformly heated channel:
 (a) dryout in saturated flow boiling and (b) DNB in subcooled flow boiling.

With highly subcooled flow boiling, bubbly flow persists over much of the channel length, and CHF ensues when bubbles near the wall coalesce into a localized vapor blanket that causes a sharp reduction in the local heat transfer coefficient. This form of CHF is termed Departure from Nucleate Boiling (DNB) and occurs with high inlet subcoolings, high mass velocities, and small length-to-diameter ratios. The magnitude of CHF is much higher than with dryout, and the ensuing surface temperature rise is far more catastrophic.

A significant body of literature has been published that addresses subcooled flow-boiling CHF. The majority of these studies are devoted to the development of correlations from large CHF database or limited experimental data (Mudawar and Bowers, 1999, Hall and Mudawar, 1999, 2000a, 200b, Katto, 1978, 1981, Katto and Ohno, 1984, Kureta and Akimoto, 2002); most of these studies are focused on water data and nuclear reactor cooling. Theoretical treatments of DNB are far more limited (*e.g.* Lee and Mudawar, 1988, Weisman and Pei, 1983, Kwon and Chang, 1999).

Because most prior subcooled boiling studies concern nuclear reactor cooling, available correlations typically address high-pressure water conditions. No effort has yet been made to assess the suitability of these correlations to electronic cooling applications and dielectric coolants.

II.1.5 Micro-Channle versus Macro-Channel Flow Boiling

Another limitation of prior flow boiling CHF correlations is that they are derived from data for macro-channel. Despite the intense recent interest in micro-channel heat sinks for electronic cooling applications, very few studies have been published that address CHF determination (Qu and Mudawar, 2004, Wojatan *et al.*, 2006); alas, these studies concern only saturated flow boiling CHF.

Different recommendations have been made concerning the channel size below which the channel begins to behave as a micro-channel. For the most part,

recommendations have been based on hydraulic diameter. For example, Thome (2004) suggested diameters of 100 – 600 μm be classified as micro-channels.

Distinguishing between macro- and micro-channel flows cannot be based on channel size alone. As will be shown below, a channel may behave as a micro-channel for certain fluids and operating conditions and as a macro-channel for others. Clearly a more rigorous treatment is necessary to define a mechanistically based boundary between the two flow extremes.

For two-phase flow, this boundary is closely related to the ratio of bubble size to channel diameter, the larger the ratio, the more likely that the flow will behave as a micro-channel flow. Kew and Cornwell (1997) used this rationale to determine the boundary between micro-channel and macro-channel flows based on a Confinement number defined as

$$Co = \left[\frac{\sigma}{g(\rho_f - \rho_g)D_h^2} \right]^{1/2}. \quad (\text{II.1.3})$$

They showed that channels become too confining when $Co > 0.5$, which is where macro-channel assumptions begin to fall apart. Table II.1.1 summarizes hydraulic diameter values corresponding to $Co = 0.5$ for several fluids. Notice that low surface tension fluids, such as the dielectric coolants FC-72 and HFE 7100, and refrigerant R134a, have lower hydraulic diameters corresponding to the transition from macro- to micro-channel flow, whereas water, with its higher surface tension, produces micro-channel flow in larger channels. However, the boundary values listed in Table II.1.1 are quite larger than those deemed typical of micro-channel flows.

A key weakness of Eq. (II.1.3) is that it is based on the ratio of surface tension force to buoyancy, evidenced by the appearance of gravitational acceleration in the definition of the Confinement number. While this criterion is a good representation for pool boiling in, say, a confined vertical channel, it is not able to account for bubble size in a flow-boiling situation. Aside from surface tension, bubble size in flow boiling is dominated by liquid drag rather than buoyancy. In the present study, an alternative

measure of the boundary between macro- and micro-channel flows is developed which incorporates the influence of liquid drag on bubble size. Equating the drag force on the bubble to the surface tension force that holds the bubble to the wall gives

$$C_D \left(\frac{\pi D_b^2}{4} \right) \frac{1}{2} \rho_f U^2 \sim \pi D_b \sigma. \quad (\text{II.1.4})$$

A channel tends to confine the flow when the diameter determined from Eq. (II.1.4) approaches the diameter of the channel. Therefore, the channel diameter corresponding to the transition from macro- to micro-channel flow can be determined from the relation

$$D_{tran} \leq D_b. \quad (\text{II.1.5})$$

For circular channels, D_{tran} is simply the diameter of the channel.

Two-phase micro-channel flow applications of practical interest are characterized by modest laminar Reynolds numbers, generally greater than 50. Under these conditions, the drag coefficient can be determined from Liao (2002)

$$C_D = \frac{24}{Re_{tran}} \left(1 + \frac{3}{160} Re_{tran} \right). \quad (\text{II.1.6})$$

Combining Eqs. (II.1.4) to (II.1.6) and substituting $G = \rho_f U$, yield the following criterion for the transitional channel dimension,

$$D_{tran} = \frac{160}{9} \frac{(\sigma \rho_f - 3 \mu_f G)}{G^2}. \quad (\text{II.1.7})$$

Table II.1.2 shows calculated values of D_{tran} for water and HFE 7100 based on Eq. (II.1.7). Notice how these values are significantly smaller than those given in Table II.1.1, and more representative of values deemed typical of micro-channel flow in recent experimental studies. Table II.1.2 also shows decreasing surface tension and/or increasing mass velocity enables smaller channels to behave as macro-channels.

It is interesting to note that Eq. (II.1.7) can also be expressed as a Weber number criterion for confinement

$$We_{tran} = \frac{160}{9} \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{160}{3Re_{tran}}\right)}, \quad (\text{II.1.8})$$

which can be approximated as

$$We_{tran} = \frac{160}{9} \quad (\text{II.1.9})$$

for high mass velocities. Equation (II.1.9) shows Weber number plays an important role in micro-channel flows, and its effect must therefore be incorporated in any micro-channel CHF correlation. This important issue will be discussed later in this study.

Table II.1.1. Fluid properties and hydraulic diameters corresponding to transition from macro- to micro-channel flow for different coolants at one bar based on Eq. (II.1.3).

Fluids	T_{sat} [°C]	h_{fg} [kJ/kg]	ρ_f [kg/m ³]]	ρ_g [kg/m ³]]	σ [mN/m]	Co ($D_h=1.0$ mm)	D_{tran} ($Co = 0.5$) [mm]
Water	99.6	2258	959	0.59	59.0	2.50	5.0
FC-72	55.9	83.54	1603	13.1	12.0	0.88	1.75
R134a	-26.4	217.2	1378	5.19	15.5	1.07	2.14
HFE 7100	59.6	111.7	1373	9.58	15.7	1.08	2.17

Table II.1.2. Fluid properties and hydraulic diameters corresponding to transition from macro- to micro-channel flow for water and HFE 7100 at one bar based on Eq. (II.1.7).

Fluids	T_{sat} [°C]	ρ_f [kg/m ³]	μ_f [kg/m.s]	σ [mN/m]	G [kg/m ² s]	D_{tran} [mm]
Water	99.6	959	2.83×10^{-4}	59.0	500	3.99
					1000	0.990
					2000	0.243
HFE 7100	59.6	1373	3.57×10^{-4}	15.7	500	1.49
					1000	0.364
					2000	0.0863

II.2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

II.2.1 Indirect Refrigeration Cooling System

Figure II.2.1 shows the diagram of flow loop for this newly proposed indirect refrigeration cooling scheme. As indicated earlier, the vapor compression system is completely isolated from the primary cooling loop containing the micro-channel module. The working fluid in the primary cooling loop is HFE 7100. This 3M Novec fluid has very low freezing point below $-100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and a relatively moderate boiling point of $60\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ at atmospheric pressure. Like other phase change electronic cooling fluids (e.g., FC-72 and FC-87), HFE 7100 has excellent dielectric properties, is very inert, and its surface tension is much smaller than that of water. But while it shares the zero ozone depletion potential of recent dielectric coolant, HFE 7100 as well as the entire Novec family of coolants also have unusually low global warming potential. Table II.2.1 provides representative values for the thermophysical properties of HFE 7100.

As shown in Fig. II.2.1, HFE 7100 is circulated from a reservoir through the primary loop with the aid of a centrifugal pump. The primary coolant then enters a heat exchanger where its temperature is greatly reduced by rejecting heat to the secondary refrigeration loop. Exiting this heat exchanger, the primary coolant passes through a filter followed by a Coriolis mass flow meter before entering the micro-channel test section. Throttling valves are situated both upstream and downstream of the test section to control both flow rate and pressure drop. Exiting the downstream valve, the primary coolant is returned to reservoir. Figure II.2.1 highlights another practical advantage of an indirect refrigeration cooling system. Because the primary and refrigeration loops are completely isolated, the micro-channel test section maintains only a mild operating pressure, which is advantageous for electronics cooling applications.

To achieve high cooling capacity at low temperatures, a cascade cycle is used in the refrigeration system. This two-stage compression system employs two different refrigerants, R507 for the high compression stage and R508b for the lower stage. With the cascade feature, this system is capable of rejecting 550 W at -80 °C and its capacity increases with increasing temperature. Another feature of this system is its ability to control the temperature of HFE 7100 in the primary loop at the heat exchanger outlet to within ± 0.5 °C.

Table II.2.1 Summary of thermophysical properties of HFE 7100.

	k_f [W/m.K]	μ_f [kg/m.s]	$c_{p,f}$ [kJ/kg.K]	σ [mN/m]	
$T = -30$ °C	0.0796	14.741×10^{-4}	1073.0	18.214	
$T = 0$ °C	0.0737	8.265×10^{-4}	1133.0	15.683	
	T_{sat} [°C]	h_f [kJ/kg]	h_{fg} [kJ/kg]	ρ_f [kg/m ³]	ρ_g [kg/m ³]
$P = 1.0$ bar	59.63	92.76	111.7	1372.7	9.575
$P = 3.5$ bar	104.41	145.5	97.61	1238.9	32.143

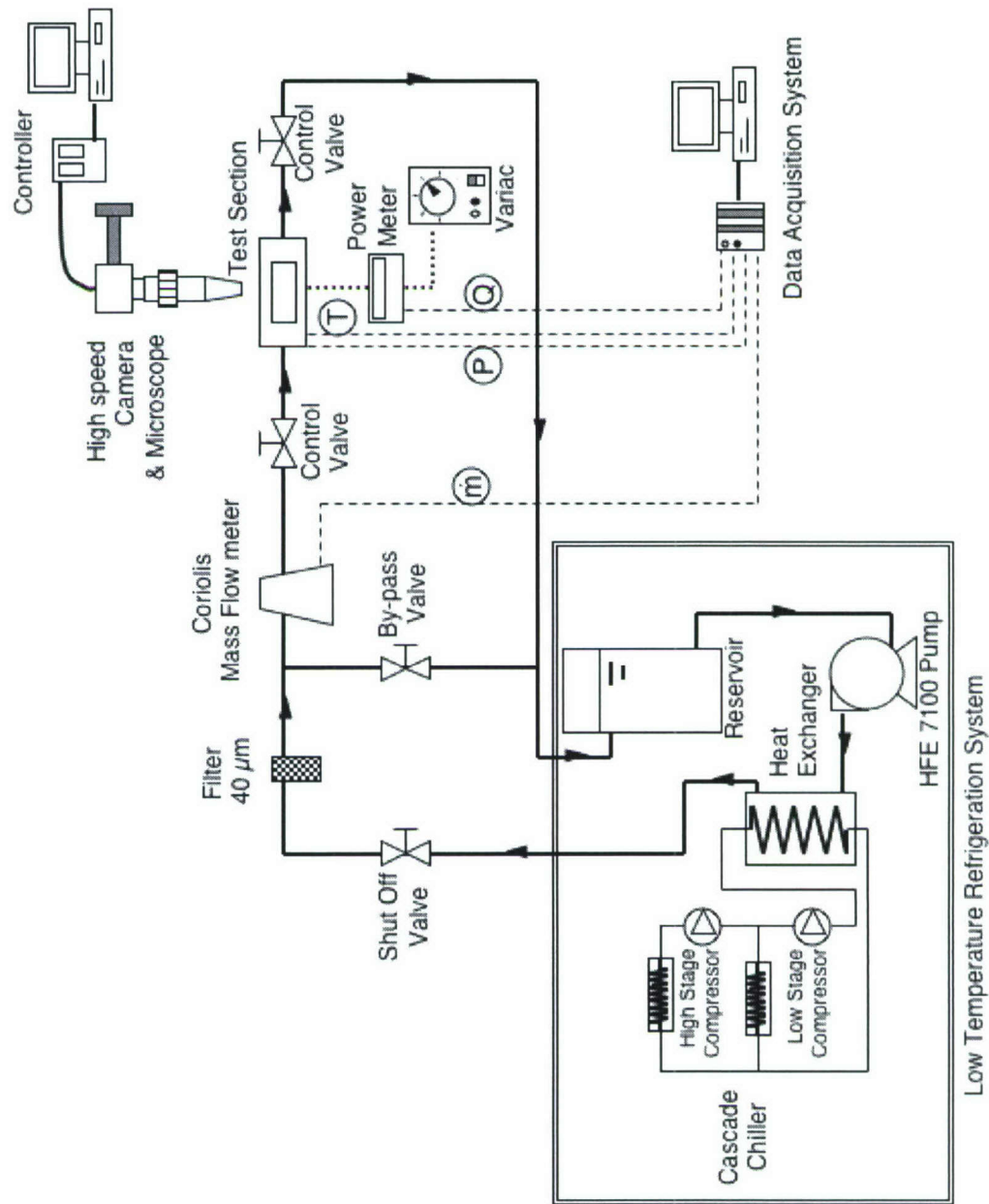


Figure II.2.1 Flow diagram for indirect refrigeration cooling system.

II.2.2 Micro-Channel Test Section

Figure II.2.2 illustrates the construction of the micro-channel test section. Micro-channels with rectangular cross-section were formed by micro-slotting the top surface of an oxygen-free copper block with the aid of a series of thin carbide blades. The enlarged underside of the copper block has four bores to accommodate high-power-density cartridge heaters. The top portion of the copper block is inserted into a rectangular housing made from G-11 fiberglass plastic which is compatible with both low and high temperature operation. This housing features coolant inlet and outlet ports, micro-channel inlet and outlet plenums, and both pressure and temperature instrumentation ports. The micro-channels were formed by clamping a polycarbonate plastic cover plate atop the housing and the copper block. This transparent cover plate provided top viewing access to the flow inside the micro-channels. All other surfaces of the copper block were carefully insulated to minimize heat loss to the ambient.

To examine the effects of micro-channel hydraulic diameter and aspect ratio, four different copper blocks were machined, each containing different micro-channel features. All four copper blocks had the same top 0.5 cm wide by 1.0 cm long heat transfer area. Dimensions of the four test sections are given in Table II.2.2. Figure II.2.3 shows microscope images of the micro-channels in each test section.

Table II.2.2 Test section dimensions.

	W_{ch} [μm]	W_w [μm]	H_{ch} [μm]	AR	D_h [μm]	L [cm]	N
TS #1	123.4	84.2	304.9	2.47	175.7	1.0	24
TS #2	123.4	84.6	526.9	4.27	200.0	1.0	24
TS #3	235.2	230.3	576.8	2.45	334.1	1.0	11
TS #4	259.9	205.0	1041.3	4.01	415.9	1.0	11

II.2.3 Operating Conditions and Measurements

As indicated earlier, the indirect refrigeration cooling system ensured the delivery of primary coolant (HFE 7100) to micro-channel test section at precise temperature using automated feedback control. Tests were performed at two test module HFE 7100 inlet temperatures, - 30 and 0 °C. Lower temperatures were possible but avoided because frost on the test section's transparent cover plate prohibited optical access.

Aside from inlet temperature, the test matrix for the present study included variations of flow rate of the primary coolant and heat flux; a constant test section's outlet pressure of 1.138 bar was maintained throughout the study. Table II.2.3 provides ranges of key parameters of the study for each of the four test sections.

The test section's instrumentation included pressure transducers and thermocouples for both the inlet and outlet plenums. Three type-T thermocouples were also inserted in the copper block beneath the micro-channels as illustrated in Fig. II.2.4. The three thermocouple measurements ($T_{tc,1}$, $T_{tc,2}$, $T_{tc,3}$) enabled the calculation of heat transfer coefficients and wall temperatures at the base of the micro-channel ($T_{w,1}$, $T_{w,2}$, $T_{w,3}$) immediately above using a fin analysis method and the assumption of 1-D vertical conduction as discussed in Part I and Qu and Mudawar (2003a, b). Other measurements included electrical power input to the test section's four cartridge heaters using a Wattmeter, and mass flow rate using the Coriolis flow meter. All measurements were made simultaneously and processed by an HP3852 data acquisition system.

Table II.2.3 Experimental operating conditions.

	T_{in} [°C]	\dot{m} [g/s]	P_{out} [bar]	G [kg/m ² .s]	Re_{Dh}	q'' [W/cm ²]
TS #1	-30, 0	2.0 - 5.0	1.138	2200 - 5550	265 - 1170	0 - 560
TS #2	-30, 0	2.0 - 5.0	1.138	1280 - 3210	175 - 780	0 - 580
TS #3	-30, 0	2.0 - 5.0	1.138	1330 - 3350	304 - 1360	0 - 640
TS #4	-30, 0	2.0 - 20.0	1.138	670 - 6730	189 - 3370	0 - 750

II.2.4 Measurement Uncertainty

One primary concern in the present study was to accurately determine the uncertainty in heat flux measurement. Despite the large convective heat transfer coefficient inside the micro-channels, the relatively small wetted area compared to overall surface area of the copper block was a reason for concern over potentially large heat loss. For single-phase flows, this heat loss can be easily determined by comparing the fluid's sensible heat rise to the electrical power input. Unfortunately, this method cannot be applied in two-phase situations. Therefore a new method was devised to determine the heat loss.

An iterative calculation technique was used. In the first iteration, zero heat loss was assumed and both the convective heat transfer coefficients and wall temperatures inside the micro-channel were calculated at the axial locations of the thermocouples using the aforementioned fin analysis method and the assumption of 1-D vertical conduction. A finite element model was constructed for the entire test section, including housing, cover plate and insulation, which accounted for external natural convection. Boundary conditions for the micro-channel in the finite element model were determined by averaging the three heat transfer coefficient values from the first iteration and using a fluid temperature equal to the average of the measured inlet and outlet temperatures. Heat loss was the estimated using the finite element model. In the second iteration, a new heat flux value was used after deducting heat loss from total electrical power input. New values the convective heat transfer coefficients were determined for the three axial locations of thermocouples inside the micro-channels using the fin analysis method and assumption of 1-D vertical conduction. Using a new average of the three heat transfer coefficient values, the finite element model was used once more to provide an updated estimate of heat loss. Further iteration was attempted until the three heat transfer coefficient values converged. This required about 7 to 13 iterations depending on test section and operating conditions. With this approach, heat loss was estimated at 14 to 20% of electrical power input for single-phase conditions, and 6 to 14% for two-phase

conditions. The experimental data presented in this study have all been corrected for this heat loss.

Uncertainties in the temperature measurements were ± 0.5 °C for inlet fluid temperature control and ± 0.3 °C for thermocouple readings. Accuracies of other measurement instruments were as follows: $\pm 0.5\%$ for the pressure transducers, $\pm 0.1\%$ for the Coriolis flow meter, and $\pm 0.1\%$ for the Wattmeter.

II.2.5 Photographic Method

Flow visualization played a major role in capturing two-phase flow behavior in the micro-channels. A high-speed digital video imaging system was used for this purpose. Two key requirements for capturing the complex interfacial features in a micro-channel with high resolution are high shutter speed and high magnification. The Photron FASTCAM-Ultima camera system used in the present study is capable of shutter speeds up to 1/120,000 s. However, the maximum shutter speed used was dictated by lighting limitations. Lighting was provided by a PerkinElmer Xenon source fitted with an Olympus fiber optic cable that focused the light on the photographed region of the micro-channel. The present study employed a shutter speed of 1/8000 s for relatively slow isolated bubbles and 1/15000 s for fast and/or coalescing bubbles.

To achieve high magnification, two different Infinity K-2 lenses were used. The first provides 4 to 5.8 times magnification and a 1.1 to 1.6 mm field of view. This lens was quite effective for test sections TS #3 and TS #4, capturing 3 to 4 micro-channels in each test section. The other lens provides 8 to 10.7 times magnification and a 0.6 to 0.8 mm field of view. This lens was used with test sections TS #1 and TS #2, which had about half the micro-channel width of TS #3 and TS #4. This second lens captured 7 to 9 micro-channels in TS #1 and TS #2.

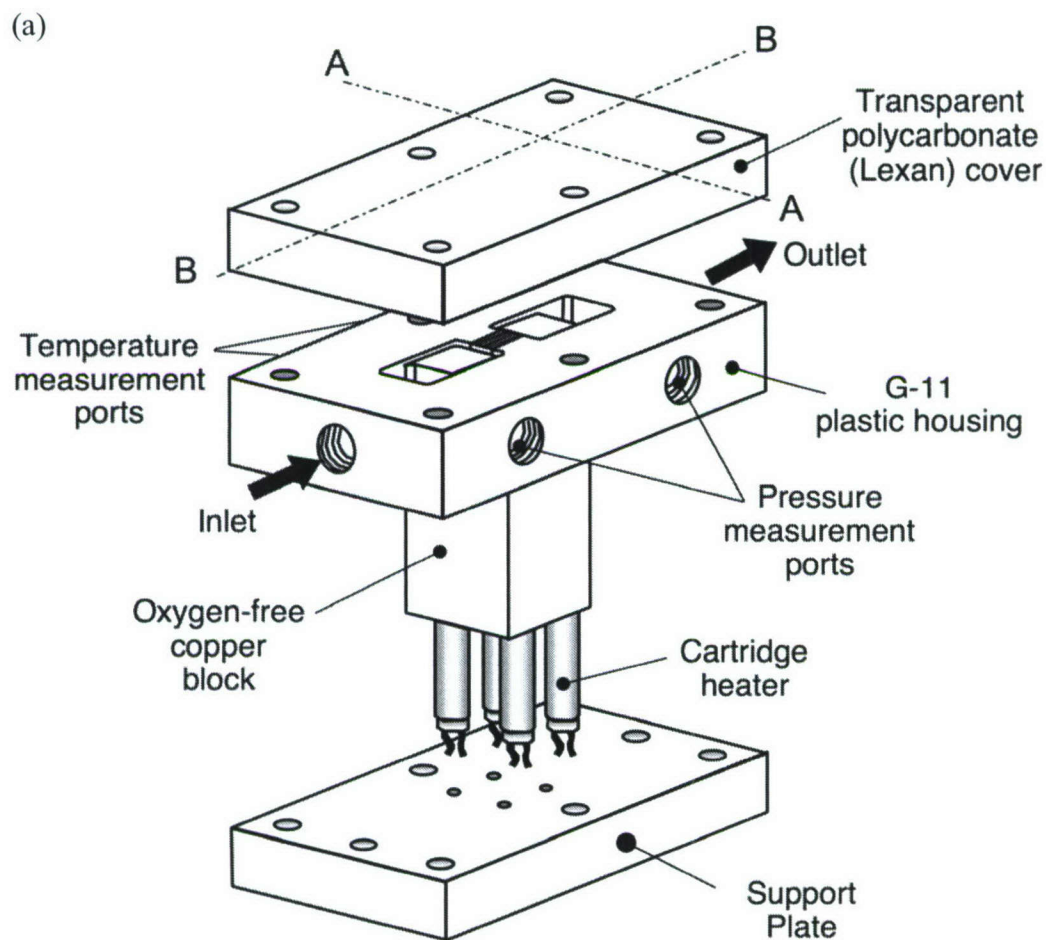


Fig. II.2.2 (a) Isometric view of micro-channel test section.
 (b) Cross-sectional view (A-A). (c) Side sectional view (B-B).

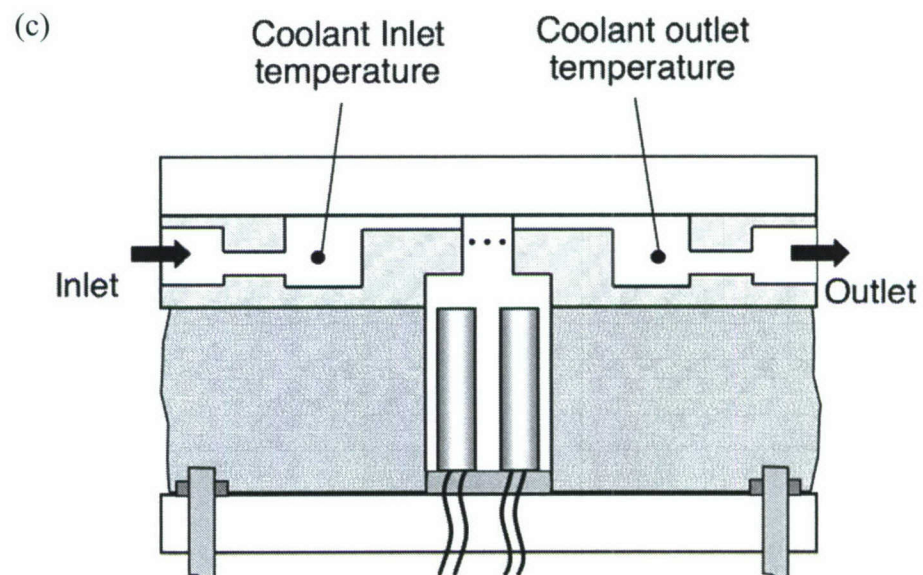
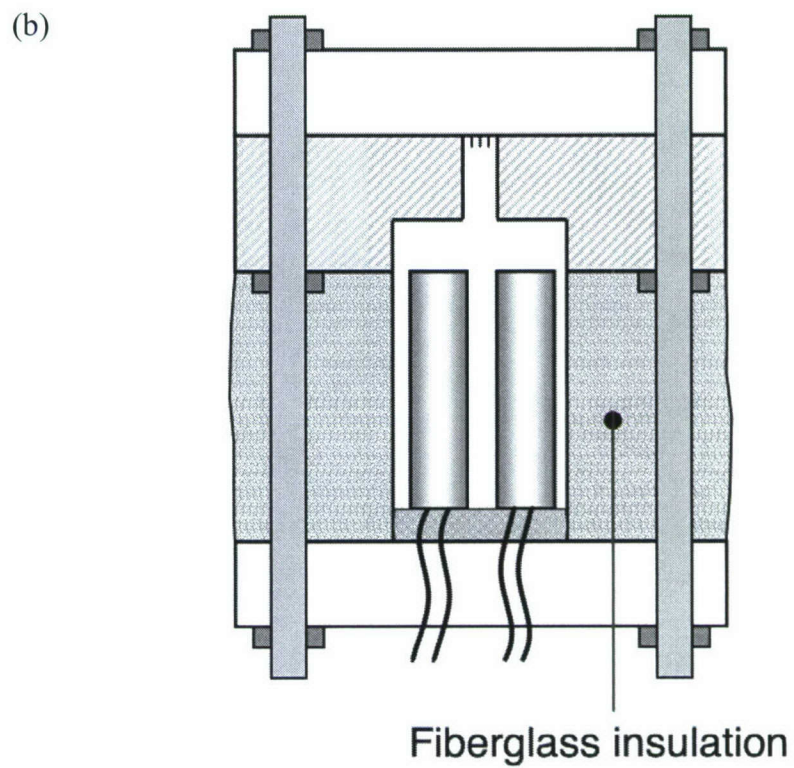
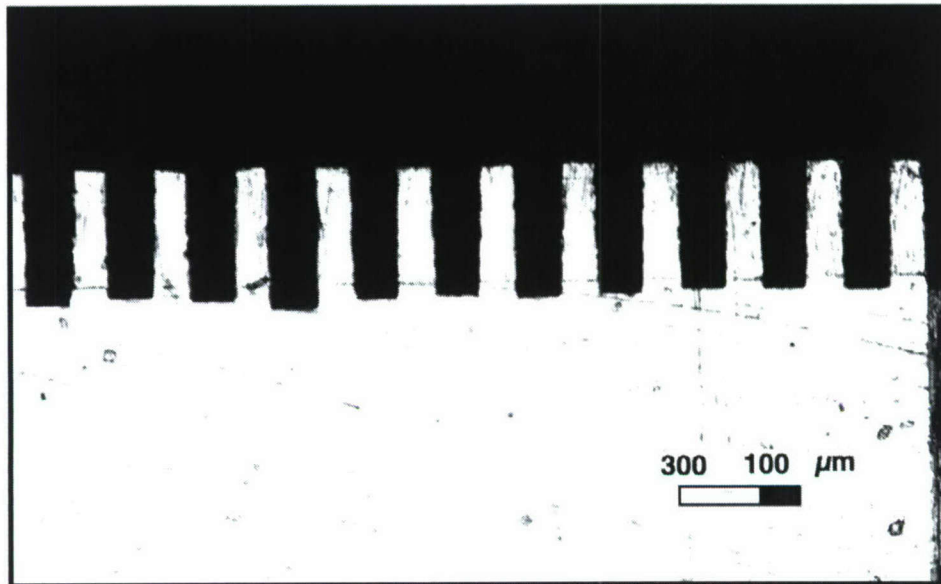
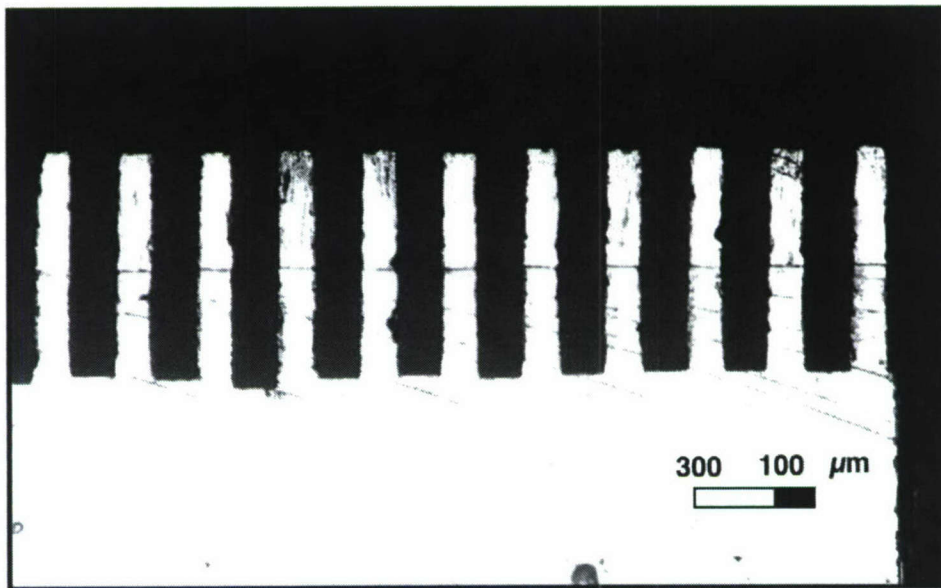


Fig. II.2.2 continued.

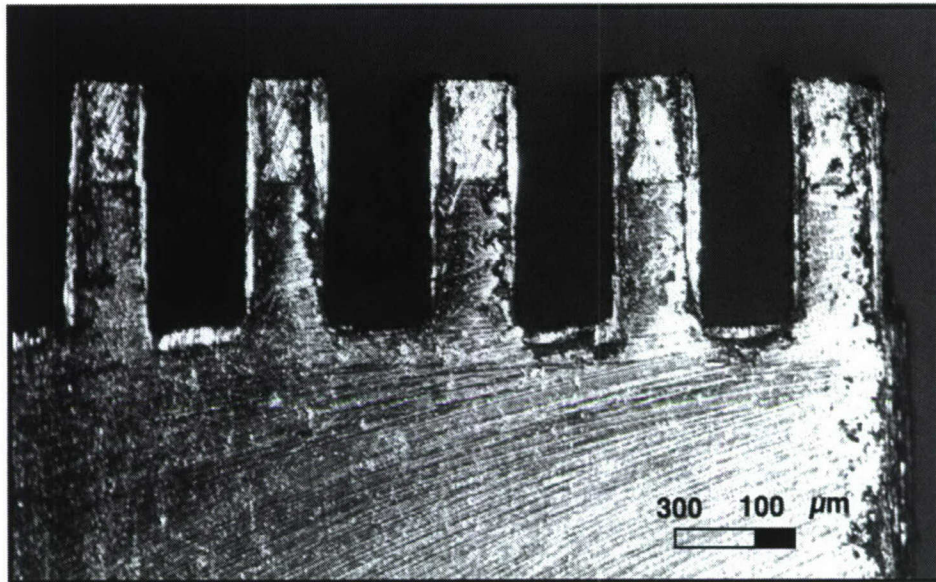


(a)

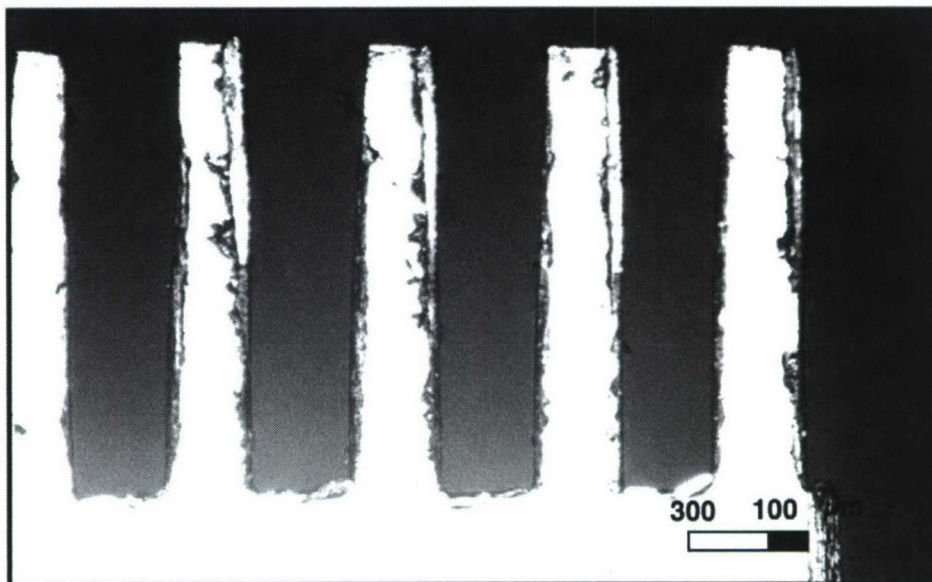


(b)

Figure II.2.3 Microscope images of micro-channels: (a) TS #1 ($D_h = 175.7 \mu\text{m}$), (b) TS #2 ($D_h = 200.0 \mu\text{m}$), (c) TS #3 ($D_h = 334.1 \mu\text{m}$), and (d) TS #4 ($D_h = 415.9 \mu\text{m}$).



(c)



(d)

Figure II.2.3 continued.

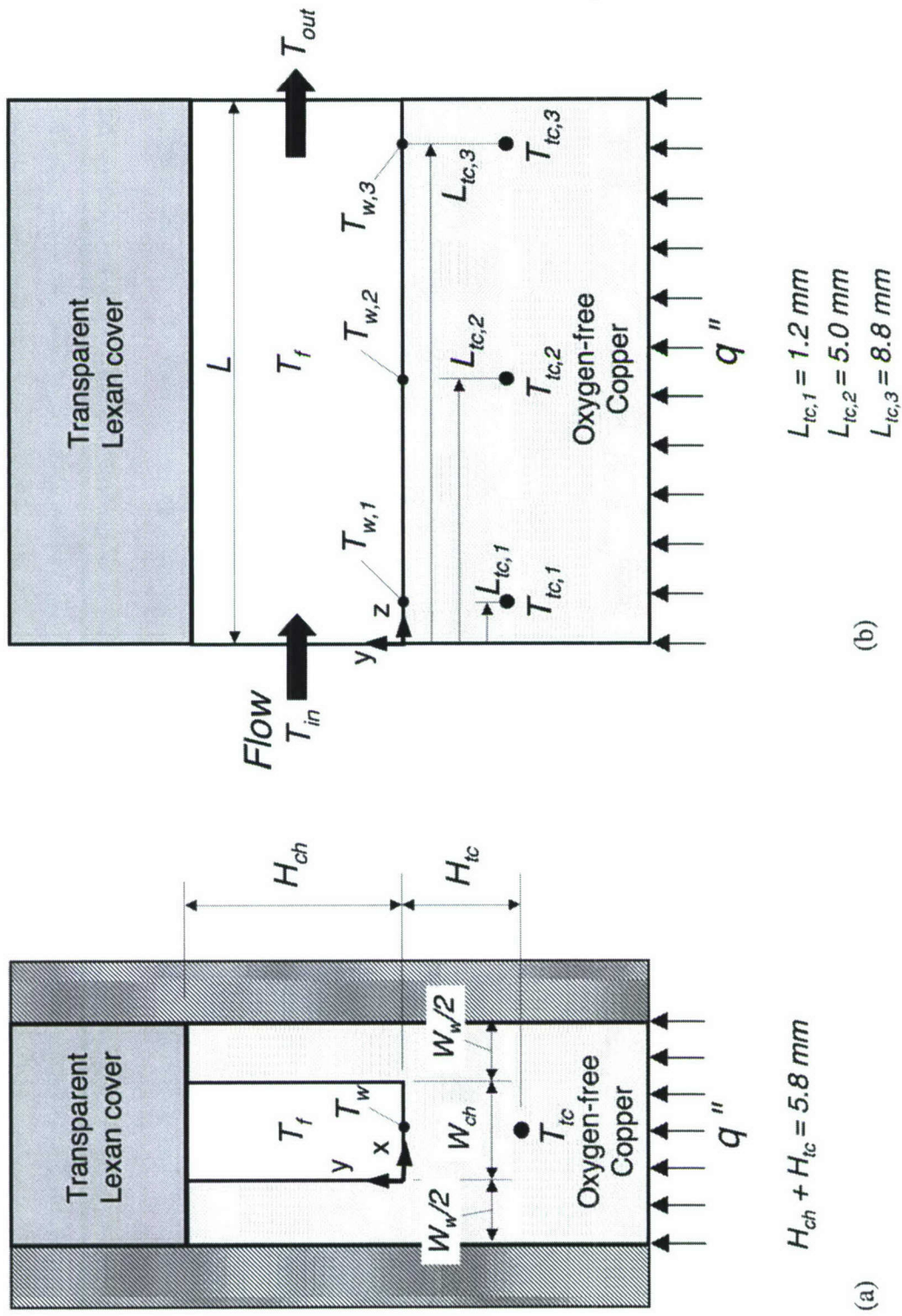


Figure II.2.4 Micro-channel unit cell and locations of thermocouples in (a) x-y plane and (b) y-z plane.

II.3 FLOW VISUALIZATION

II.3.1 Heat Transfer Results

II.3.1.1 Subcooled Flow Boiling Regime

Figure II.3.1 shows for TS #1 variations of the measured fluid outlet temperature and mean temperature of the micro-channel bottom wall with heat flux for two mass flow rates. Notice how wall temperature is below ambient temperature for fluxes as high as 120 W/cm^2 depending on flow rate; these conditions typically fall into the single-phase region. Figure II.3.1(b) shows single-phase cooling sustained well above 200 W/cm^2 for $\dot{m} = 5 \text{ g/s}$. However, fluid temperature for both flow rates never reached saturation. This is especially the case for the higher of the two flow rates. This indicates subcooled boiling conditions prevail inside the test section for both flow rates. The outlet temperature data suggest even highly subcooled boiling conditions for the higher flow rate. This shows that with the high degree of subcooling achieved with indirect refrigeration cooling, subcooled boiling can be achieved even at very high fluxes. This is especially the case at high flow rates.

In fact, subcooled boiling prevailed for almost all operating conditions of the present study, regardless of test section. What was different among the different operating conditions was the degree of subcooling inside the micro-channels. This issue will become more apparent from the video images discussed below.

From a modeling standpoint, subcooled boiling poses major challenges, particularly in terms of predictions of void fraction and pressure drop. Interestingly, most the published literature on two-phase micro-channel heat sinks concerns saturated boiling, where annular flow is dominant. The complexity of the present situation

warrants careful assessment of interfacial interactions inside the micro-channel heat sink. In fact, this is the primary goal of the present study.

II.3.1.2 Representative Boiling Curve

Figure II.3.2 shows subcooled boiling curves for TS#3 for inlet temperatures of -30 and 0 °C. Despite the similarity in boiling curve shape, appreciable differences in subcooled boiling behavior were observed between the two cases.

Indicated in Fig. II.3.2 are several data points ('A' to 'F') for $T_{in} = 0$ °C, spanning conditions between the onset of boiling and CHF. Point 'G' for the same inlet temperature corresponds to conditions during the transient that followed CHF. For the comparison purposes, point 'H' corresponds to subcooled boiling conditions for $T_{in} = -30$ °C. Because of the highly subcooled state at this lower temperature, boiling behavior showed far less variation with heat flux than at 0 °C. Representative video images that were captured at these points are presented and discussed in the following sections.

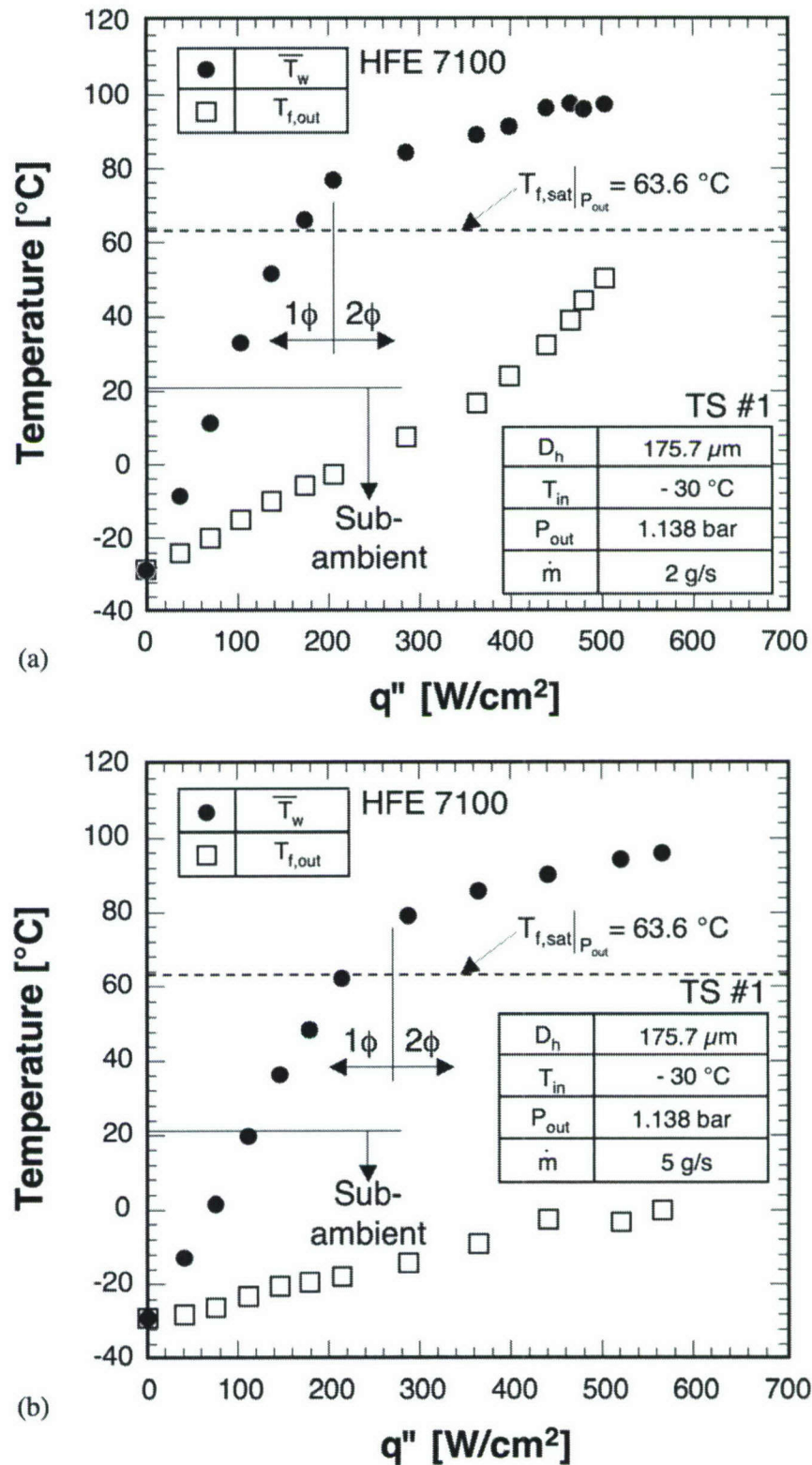


Figure II.3.1 Variations of measured fluid outlet temperature and mean micro-channel bottom wall temperature with heat flux for TS #1 at (a) $\dot{m} = 2$ g/s and (b) $\dot{m} = 5$ g/s.

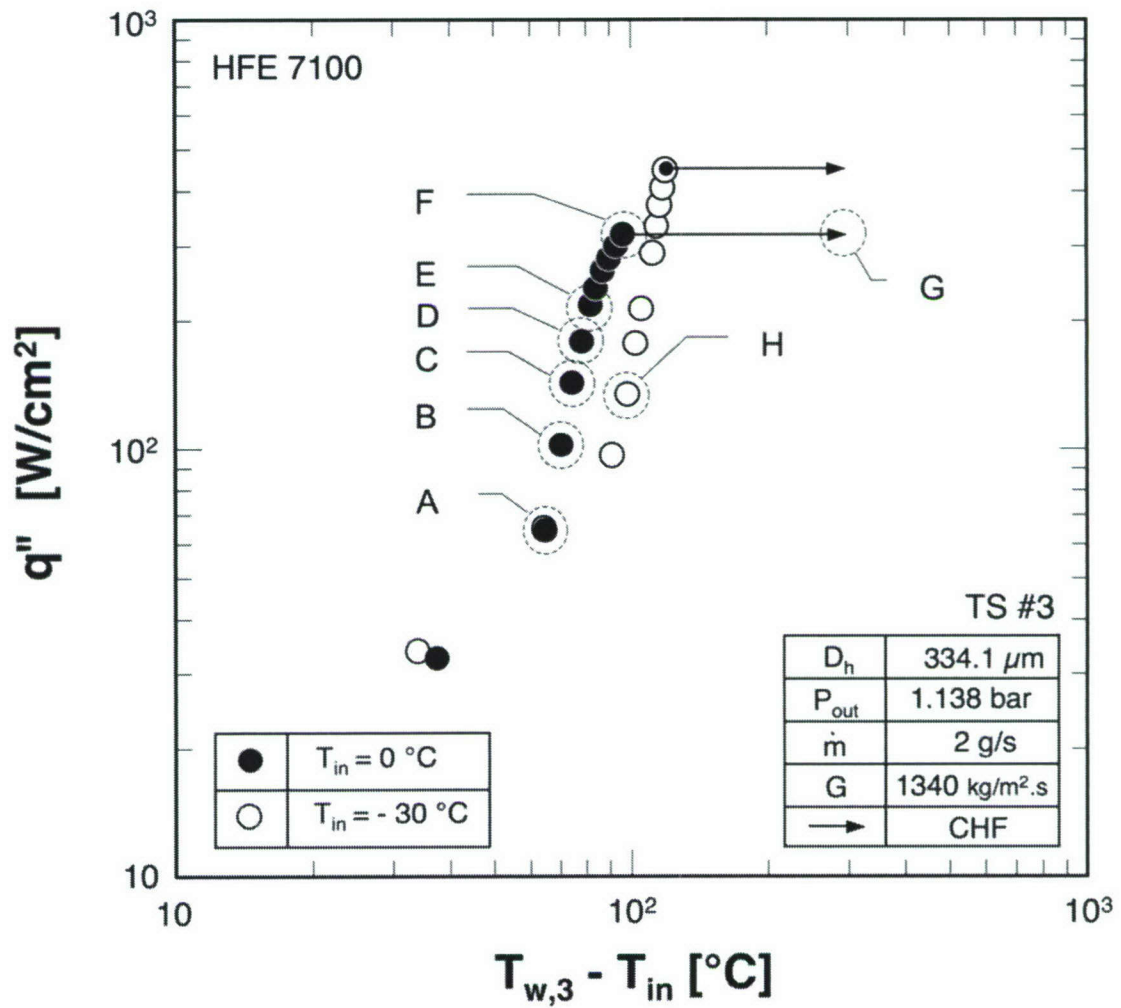


Figure II.3.2 Subcooled boiling curves for TS #3 for two inlet temperatures. Specific data points are indicated where video images of subsequent figures were captured.

II.3.2 Nucleate Boiling Region

Figure II.3.3(a) shows initial bubble formation corresponding to point 'A' in Fig. II.3.2. This is the point where the slope of the boiling curve undergoes rises sharply due to transition from the single-phase to nucleate boiling regions. Because of limitations in focal range of the microscope lens used with the video camera, the channel length is shown divided into three regions, inlet, middle and outlet. There is slight overlap of the captured length of the middle region with both the inlet and outlet regions. Figure II.3.3(a) shows early nucleation does not occur uniformly in all micro-channels. Some channels show an abundance of bubbles while others show virtually no bubbles at all. However, even in the more populated micro-channels, bubbles appear to maintain fairly large separation distances, precluding any coalescence that may lead to axial growth in the void fraction. It should be emphasized that the bubbles depicted in Fig. II.3.3(a) do not necessarily correspond to the sites from which they nucleated or location in the micro-channel's cross-section. A lateral force associated with the velocity profile across the liquid tends to keep bubbles in the vicinity of the micro-channel walls [Lee and Mudawar (1989)]. Furthermore, while the video images do not depict the location of bubbles relative to the channel depth, it is expected bubble growth favors the bottom wall of the micro-channel, where liquid is warmest.

Figure II.3.3(b) shows flow boiling images corresponding to point 'B' in Fig. II.3.2. Here, with a higher heat flux, increased liquid superheat near the wall increases the number of nucleating sites, resulting in more bubbles along the micro-channels. The increased superheat also allows the bubbles to reach a large diameter than at point 'A'. Notice that the ratio of bubble separation distance to bubble diameter decreases appreciably from point 'A', increasing the likelihood of bubble coalescence in the outlet region. It should also be noted that with the increased wall superheat, bubble nucleation is evident in all the micro-channels.

Figure II.3.3(c) shows images corresponding to point 'C' in Fig. II.3.2. With this yet higher heat flux, increased wall superheat precipitates an increase in the number of active nucleating sites and therefore number of bubbles along the micro-channel. The

ratio of separation distance to bubble diameter is also greater, meaning bubbles can more easily coalesce into larger ones. The outlet region in particular shows signs of appreciable coalescence, an early indicator of transition to slug flow. Nonetheless, bubbly flow appears to dominate all three heat flux conditions corresponding to points 'A', 'B' and 'C'.

Figure II.3.4 depicts flow blow images corresponding to further increase in heat flux. Here, further increases in wall superheat facilitate large increases in the number of bubble nucleating upstream, as well as significant increase in void fraction spurred by coalescence of bubbles along the micro-channel. Figure II.3.4(a) shows oblong bubbles forming in the outlet region for point 'D'. Notice in the outlet regions both oblong slug flow bubbles and smaller discrete bubbles appear to form at the same axial location. This can be explained by differences in bubble behavior across the depth of the micro-channel. Because of the temperature gradient between the base and top of the micro-channel's cross-section, bubbles near the base are more likely to coalesce into large oblong bubbles, while the smaller discrete bubbles near the top have less superheat to grow and coalesce. This shows the complexity of assigning a boiling regime for a given heat flux and axial location.

Figure II.3.4(b) shows the departure from bubbly to slug flow moves upstream to the middle region for point 'E'. There is also now appreciable increase in the length of slug flow bubbles in the outlet region, as well as a diminution in the number of small discrete bubbles in the same region.



Figure II.3.3 Flow boiling images of inlet, middle and outlet regions for TS #3 ($D_h = 334.1 \mu\text{m}$) at $T_{in} = 0^\circ\text{C}$: (a) point 'A', ($q'' = 64.9 \text{ W/cm}^2$), (b) point 'B', ($q'' = 102.3 \text{ W/cm}^2$), and (c) point 'C' ($q'' = 142.8 \text{ W/cm}^2$).

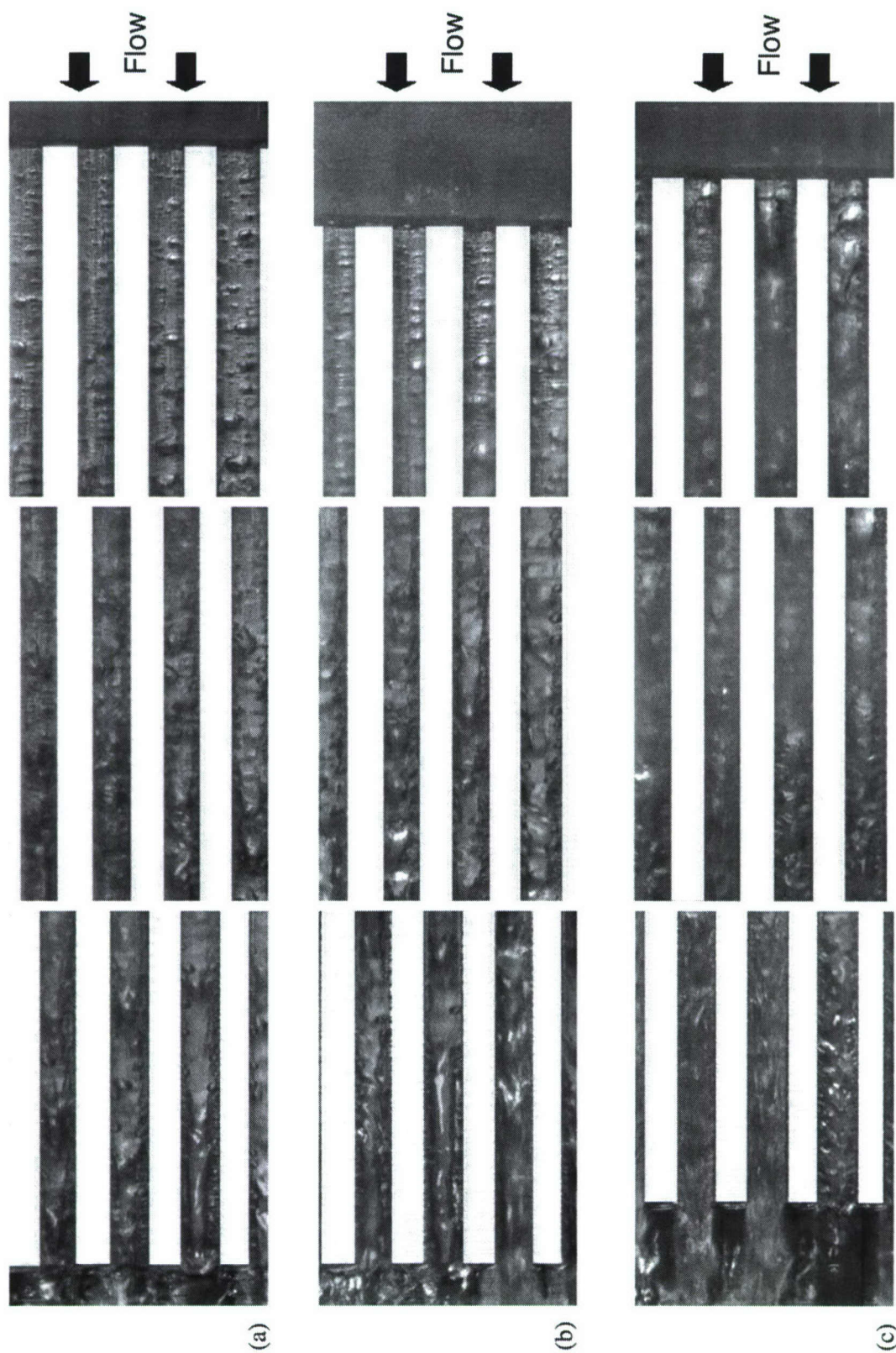


Figure II.3.4 Flow boiling images of inlet, middle and outlet regions for TS #3 ($D_h = 334.1 \mu\text{m}$) at $T_{in} = 0^\circ\text{C}$: (a) point 'D' ($q'' = 178.2 \text{ W/cm}^2$), (b) point 'E' ($q'' = 218.3 \text{ W/cm}^2$), and (c) point 'F' ($q'' = 318.3 \text{ W/cm}^2$).

II.3.3 Critical Heat Flux

For point ‘F’, Fig. II.3.4(c) shows a further shift in the slug flow regime upstream to the inlet region. This point corresponds to the last steady-state condition in the nucleate boiling region before the onset of CHF. High stream-wise flow acceleration associated with the sharply increased void fraction caused coherent vapor jets to be ejected from the channel outlet. Unfortunately, limitations on frame rate of the video camera precluded detailed resolution of interfacial activity in these jets.

CHF occurred when heat flux was increased slightly from point ‘F’. Figure II.3.5(a) shows an image of the upstream region of the micro-channels that was captured while the heat sink temperature was escalating unsteadily. A thin layer of vapor is shown covering the micro-channel walls from the very inlet. As illustrated in Fig. II.3.5(b), abundant subcooled liquid is still visible in the core region fully separated from the micro-channel walls by the vapor layer. It should be noted that capturing the video segment from which this image was obtained involved significant risk to the test section parts, especially the transparent polycarbonate cover plate. This is why it was quite difficult to obtain prolonged segments of this event.

II.3.4 Effects of Subcooling

As discussed in the previous section, inlet temperature and, more importantly, inlet subcooling plays a very important role in all aspects of bubble nucleation, growth and coalescence along the micro-channels. A reduced inlet temperature increases the superheat in the vicinity of the micro-channel walls. As shown in Fig. II.3.2, the increased subcooling delays the onset of boiling to a higher heat flux. The effects of subcooling become readily apparent when comparing images in Fig. II.3.6 that were captured at $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to those at $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, Fig. II.3.3(c), for about the same heat flux. Strong condensation effects at $-30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ suppresses bubble growth and coalescence,

prolonging the bubble growth regime and delaying transition to slug flow to much higher heat fluxes compared to 0°C inlet temperature.

Another important effect of the increased subcooling is the appreciable increase in CHF. Figure II.3.2 shows a CHF of 446.9 W/cm² for $T_{in} = -30$ °C compared to 318.3 W/cm² for $T_{in} = 0$ °C.

II.3.5 Effects of Micro-Channel Geometry

The effects of channel geometry are more complicated than those of subcooling. Figure II.3.7 depicts images obtained with TS #2, whose hydraulic diameter is $D_h = 200$ μm and width of $W_{ch} = 123.4$ μm, compared to $D_h = 334.1$ μm and $W_{ch} = 235.2$ μm for TS #3 depicted in Fig. II.3.6. It should also be noted that Fig. II.3.7 corresponds to the same inlet temperature and heat flux, $T_{in} = -30$ °C and $q'' = 134$ W/cm², respectively as Fig. II.3.6, and about same mass velocity ($G = 1281$ kg/m².s for Fig. II.3.7 comparing to 1340 kg/m².s for Fig. II.3.6). Note that micro-channel width appears to be the same in Figs. II.3.6 and II.3.7 because of the higher magnification lens used to capture the images in Fig. II.3.7; only the middle region of the micro-channels was captured with this lens.

Figure II.3.7 shows far less bubble nucleation and coalescence than in Fig. II.3.6. This may be explained by the 1.85 times greater wetted area for TS #2 compared to TS #3. The increased area both decreases the local wall heat flux and wall for TS #2, delaying the entire nucleation process. Another noticeable feature of boiling in TS #2 is increased ratio of bubble size to micro-channel width despite the decreased wall superheat. Clearly visible in the middle micro-channel in Fig. II.3.7 is a bubble whose size is two-third the micro-channel width. A smaller micro-channel width might promote the growth of bubbles that span the entire width of the micro-channel.

Figures II.3.6 and II.3.7 illustrate the complex combined influence of micro-channel geometry in subcooled boiling. Such influences can have drastic influence on the heat transfer performance of a micro-channel heat sink. The complexity of

parametric influences highlights the need for mechanistic modeling of subcooled boiling in micro-channels.

II.3.6 Instabilities and Premature CHF

The interfacial behavior discussed earlier in conjunction with Fig. II.3.5 can be described as ‘normal CHF’ since it follows the depiction of subcooled boiling CHF in large channels. However, a second drastically different type of CHF was encountered in the present study, which is best described as ‘pre-mature CHF’. This type of CHF was associated with significant instability and flow oscillation.

Figure II.3.8 depicts a series of images separated by very short time intervals. Schematic of the same interfacial patterns are also shown to better explain the depicted behavior. A key difference between this cases and those depicted in earlier figures is its much lower mass velocity, $G = 670 \text{ kg/m}^2\text{s}$. With this lower mass velocity, a much larger volume of vapor is produced inside the micro-channels for the same inlet temperature and heat flux. This causes vapor coalescence into slug and even annular flow as far upstream as the inlet region. With the lower mass velocity, the momentum of incoming liquid in the upstream plenum becomes too weak to overcome the relatively large pressure exerted by the coalescent vapor. This caused vapor in the micro-channel to flow backwards towards the inlet plenum. Vapor from adjacent micro-channels merges into one large vapor mass inside the inlet plenum, momentarily blocking any incoming liquid from entering the micro-channels and causing temporary dryout and temperature rise in the micro-channels. With this blockage, the upstream pressure gradually increases and a point reach when this pressure becomes high enough to push all vapor mass downstream through the micro-channels, providing momentary wetting of the micro-channel walls and reducing wall temperatures. This was followed by vapor coalescence inside the micro-channels and a repeat of the same build-up/purge cycle. This cycle occurred with very high frequency and was associated with large fluctuations in both pressure and temperature. Conditions worsened with time as mean temperature

kept increasing with each new cycle. In fact, the peak temperature recorded by thermocouples in the copper heating block was about 200 °C when the images depicted in Fig. II.3.8 were captured.

Fortunately, premature CHF can be prevented in two different ways. The first involves increasing the momentum of incoming liquid by increasing mass velocity. With sufficiently high liquid momentum, vapor backflow is prevented before it can even begins to form the large vapor mass in the upstream plenum. The second method is to lower the inlet temperature to take advantage of condensation and reduced bubble growth and coalescence. Both methods were proven to prevent the occurrence of premature CHF in the present study.

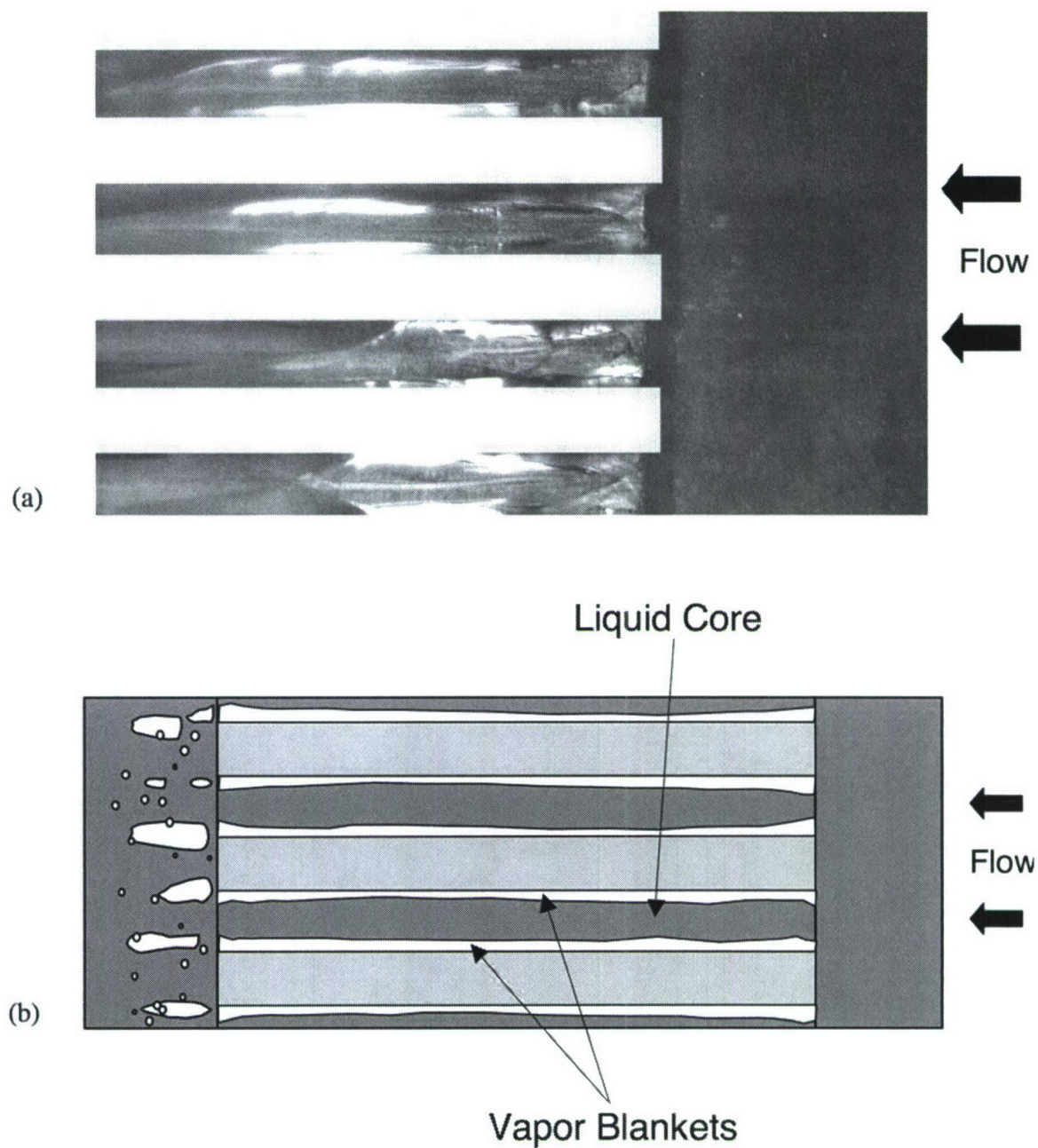


Figure II.3.5 (a) Flow image of inlet region for TS #3 ($D_h = 334.1 \mu\text{m}$) at $T_{in} = 0^\circ\text{C}$ captured at point 'G' during transient following CHF. (b) Schematic representation of interfacial conditions at point 'G'.

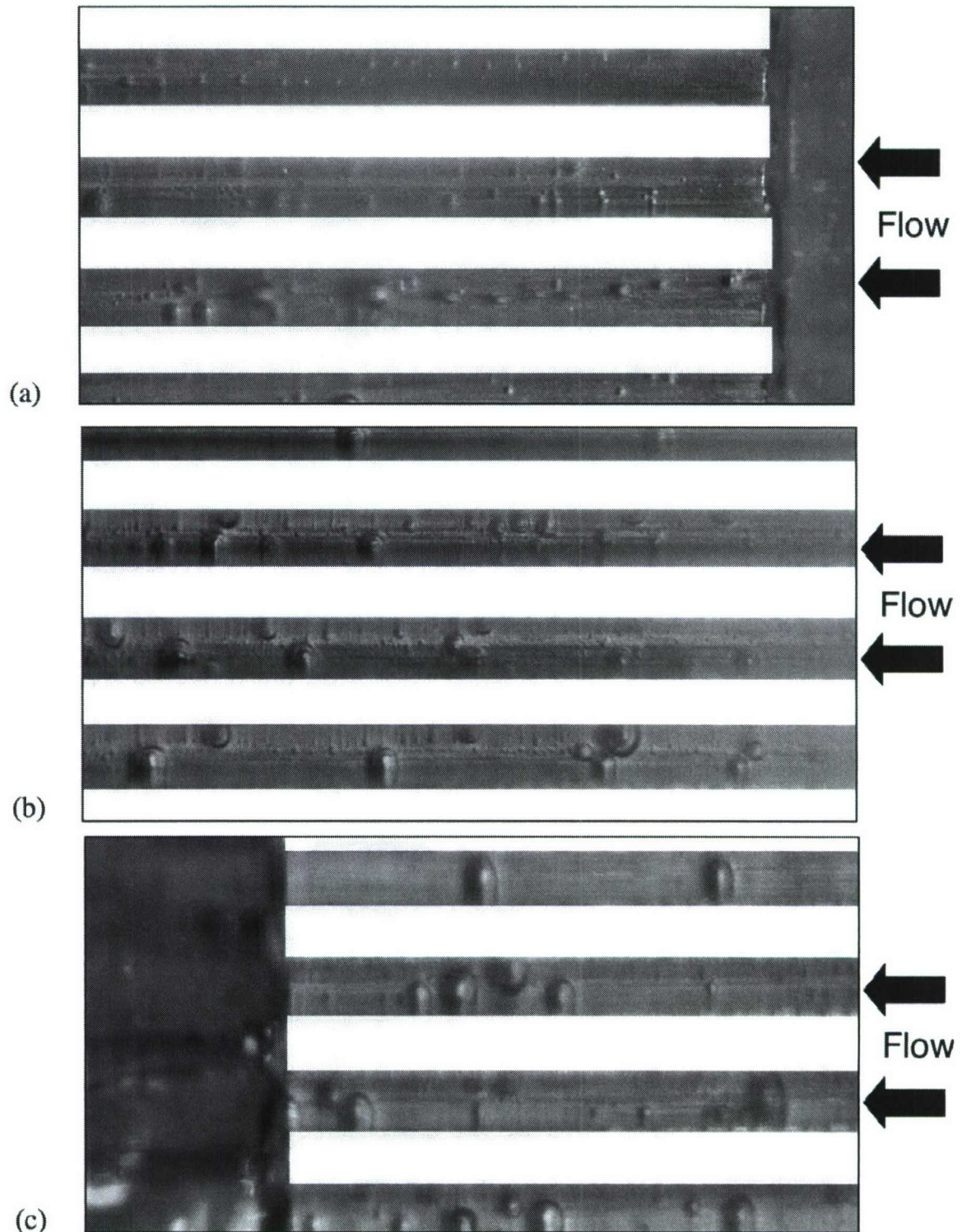


Figure II.3.6 Flow boiling images for TS #3 ($D_h = 334.1 \mu\text{m}$) at low temperature of $T_{in} = -30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $q'' = 134.0 \text{ W/cm}^2$ corresponding to point 'H'. (a) Inlet region, (b) middle region, and (c) outlet region.

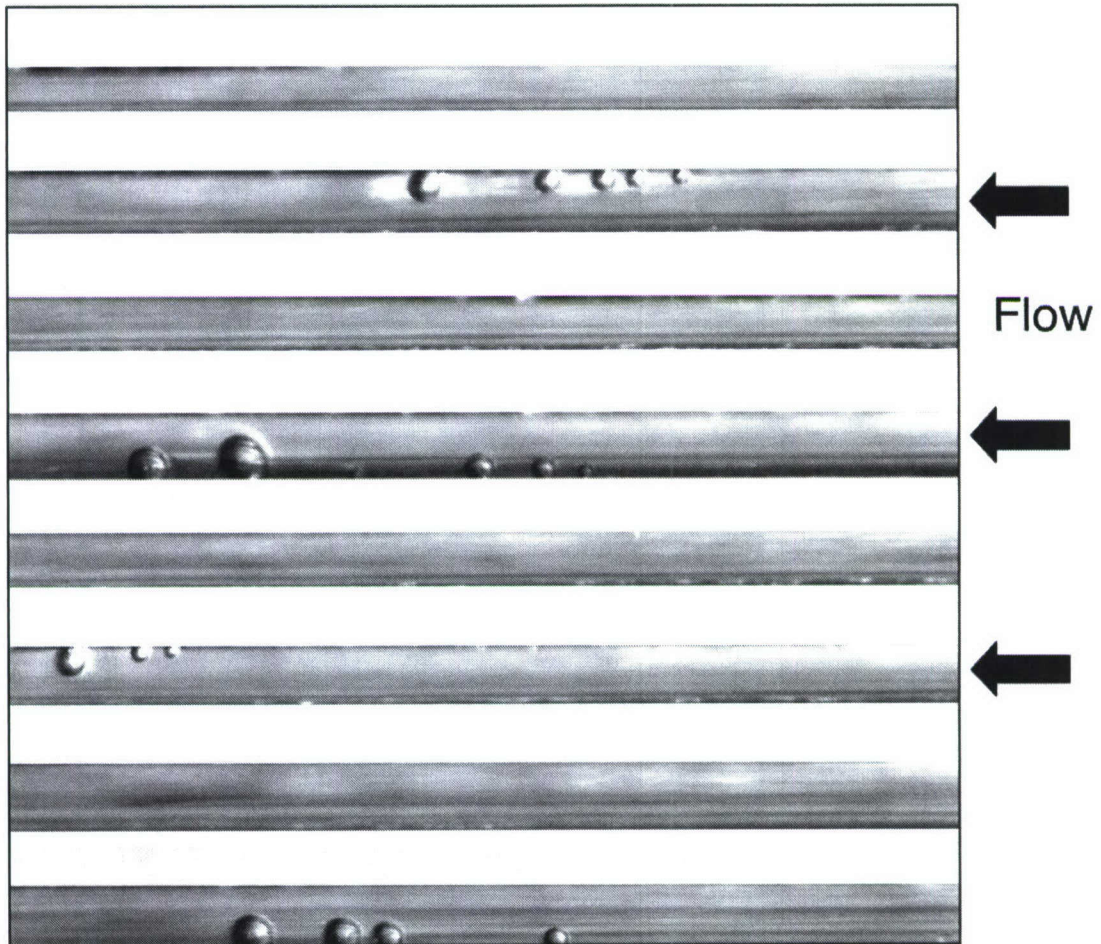


Figure II.3.7 Flow boiling image of middle region of micro-channel with smaller width and hydraulic diameter (TS #2, $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$) for $T_{in} = -30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $G = 1281 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$, and $q'' = 134.0 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

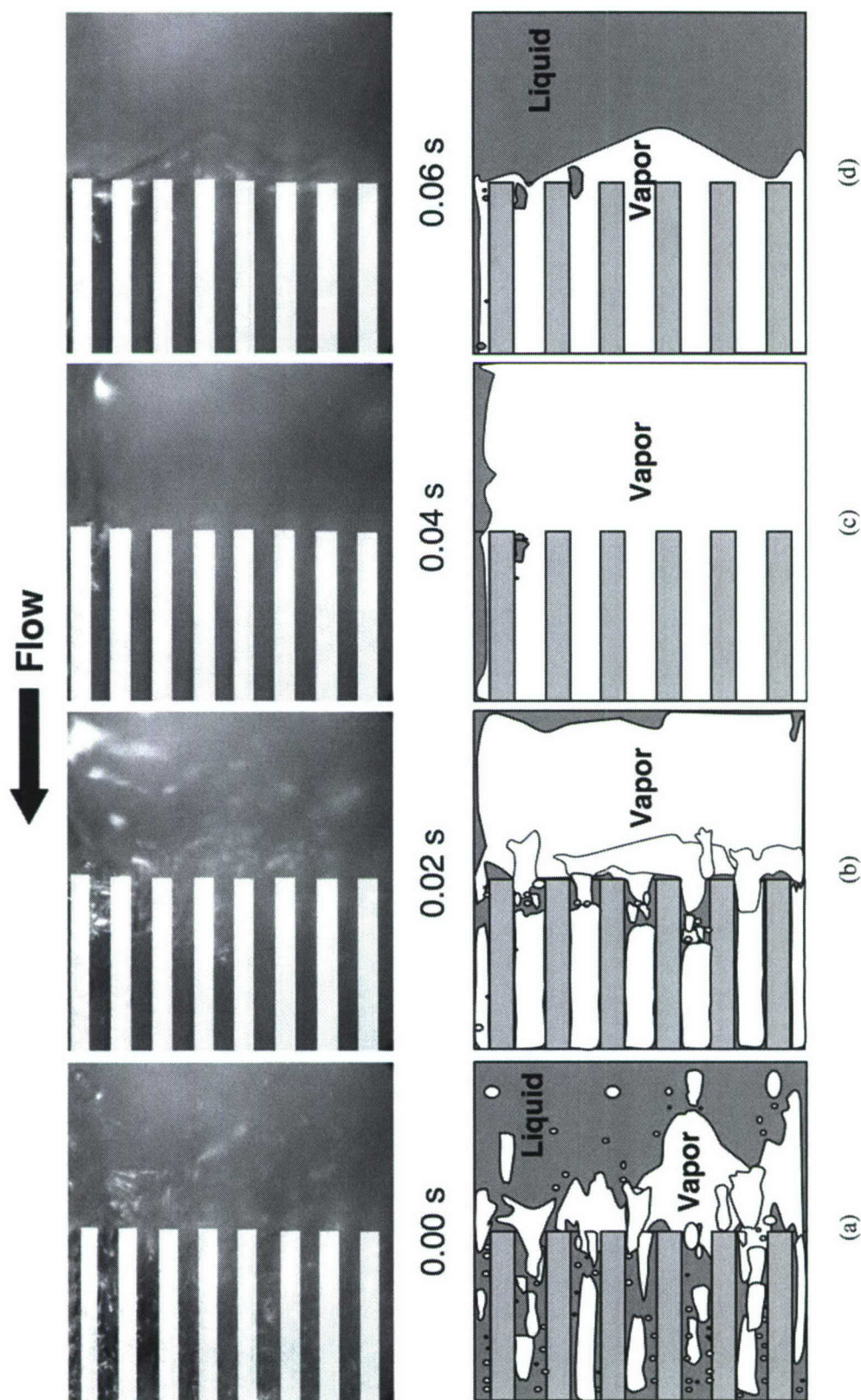


Figure II.3.8 Premature CHF and flow oscillations in TS #4 ($D_h = 415.9 \mu\text{m}$) for $T_{in} = 0^\circ\text{C}$, $G = 670 \text{ kg/m}^2 \cdot \text{s}$, and $q'' > 250.0 \text{ W/cm}^2$: (a) initial vapor pocket buildup in upstream plenum, (b) growth of vapor mass, (c) complete blockage of inlet plenum by vapor mass, and (d) purging of vapor mass along micro-channels.

II.4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND CORRELATIONS

II.4.1 Pressure Drop Results

II.4.1.1 Experimental Pressure Drop Results

Figure II.4.1 shows variations of measured pressure drop for test section TS #2 with heat flux for different flow rates and two inlet temperatures. Raw pressure drop data are presented in Fig. II.4.1(a) and shown in normalized form in Fig. II.4.1(b). Details of the geometry and operating conditions for this and the other three tests sections are given in the chapter II.2. Arrows in Fig. II.4.1 indicate the observed ONB, which marks the onset of subcooled boiling. As suggested in the chapter II.1.2, ONB occurs before the point of minimum pressure drop. In virtually all of the present data, an increase in the slope of pressure drop characteristics from the minimum point occurred with the first heat flux increment following ONB. This makes identifying any differences between ONB and point of vapor departure quite elusive. High heat fluxes and corresponding relatively large heat flux increments may have contributed to the difficulty capturing the differences between the two conditions.

Figure II.4.1 also demonstrates a monotonic shift to higher pressure drop with increasing coolant flow rate as well as a corresponding delay in ONB to higher heat fluxes. However, the effect of subcooling is a bit more complex. As indicated in the previous section, pressure drop in the single-phase liquid region (before ONB) is highest for adiabatic flow and decreases with increasing heat flux due to decreasing liquid viscosity. Figure II.4.1(a) shows decreasing inlet liquid temperature causes a shift to higher pressure drop for a given flow rate because of increased liquid viscosity. However, decreasing the inlet temperature *decreases* the normalized pressure drop (see

Fig. II.4.1(b)) because of a stronger viscosity dependence on liquid temperature at lower temperatures. Figure II.4.1 also shows lower inlet temperatures delay ONB to higher heat fluxes, a trend that was captured in the flow visualization experiments discussed in the previous chapter II.3 of this study.

Figure II.4.1 shows the effect of decreasing inlet temperature is reversed in the subcooled boiling region. Here, lower inlet temperatures produce a relatively mild increase in pressure drop following ONB at -30 °C compared to 0 °C. This trend can be explained by the strong condensation effects at low inlet temperatures greatly reducing both void fraction and the overall influence of phase change on pressure drop.

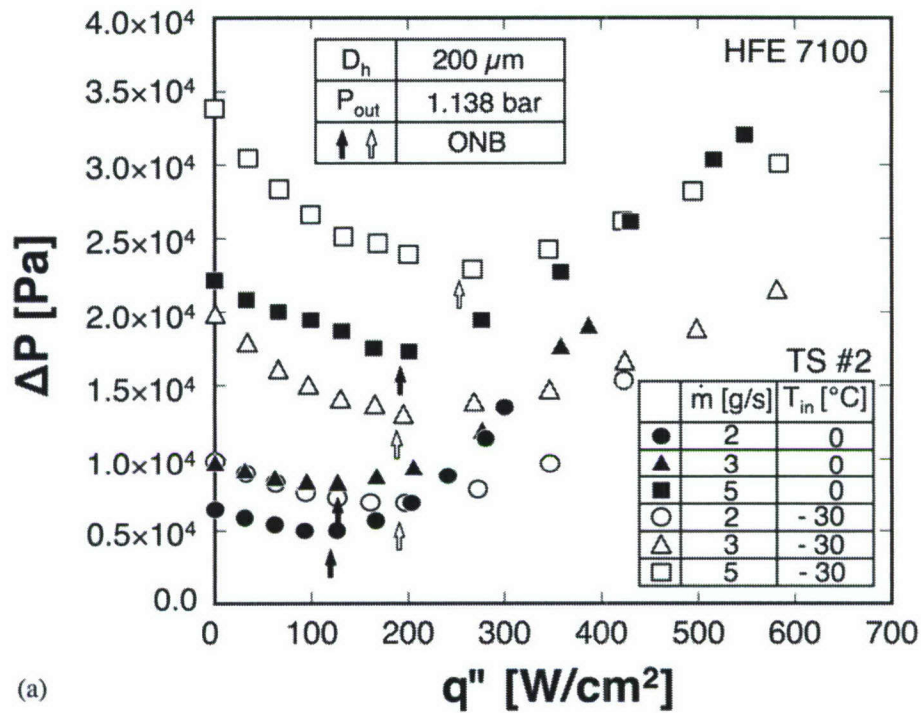
Figure II.4.2 shows the variation of pressure drop with heat flux for the four different test sections. Indicated in this figure are mass velocity values for each test section corresponding to the same mass flow rate of 5 g/s. Pressure drop for the single-phase and two-phase regions can be represented, respectively, by

$$\left(\frac{dp}{dz}\right)_{sp,f} = \frac{2f_{sp}}{D_h} G^2 v_f \quad (\text{II.4.1})$$

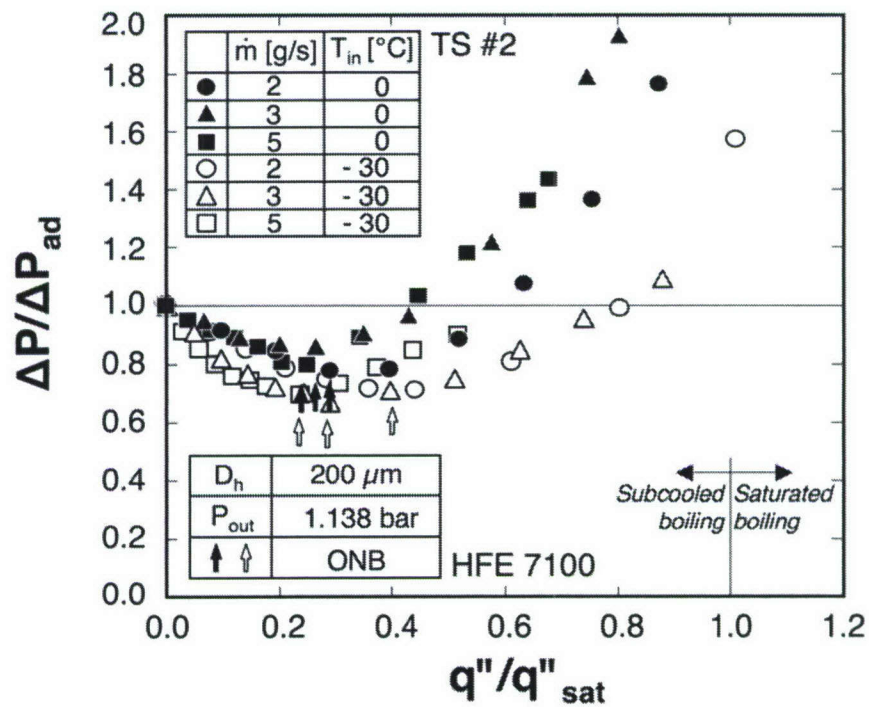
and

$$\left(\frac{dp}{dz}\right)_{tp} = \left(\frac{dp}{dz}\right)_{tp,F} + \left(\frac{dp}{dz}\right)_{tp,A} = \frac{2f_{tp}}{D_h} G^2 \bar{v} + G^2 \frac{d\bar{v}}{dz}, \quad (\text{II.4.2})$$

where f_{sp} and f_{tp} are the single-phase and two-phase friction factors, respectively. Figure II.4.2 displays the strong dependence of pressure drop on mass velocity evident in both of the above equations. Equations (II.4.1) and (II.4.2) also show pressure drop for both single-phase flow and two-phase flow increases with decreasing hydraulic diameter. This is also manifest in Fig. II.4.2, where the highest pressure drop is associated with the smallest hydraulic diameter (TS #1, $D_h = 175.7 \mu\text{m}$) and largest mass velocity ($G = 5546 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$).



(a)



(b)

Figure II.4.1 (a) Variation of pressure drop for test section TS #2 ($D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$) with heat flux for different flow rates and inlet temperatures, and (b) corresponding normalized pressure drop plot.

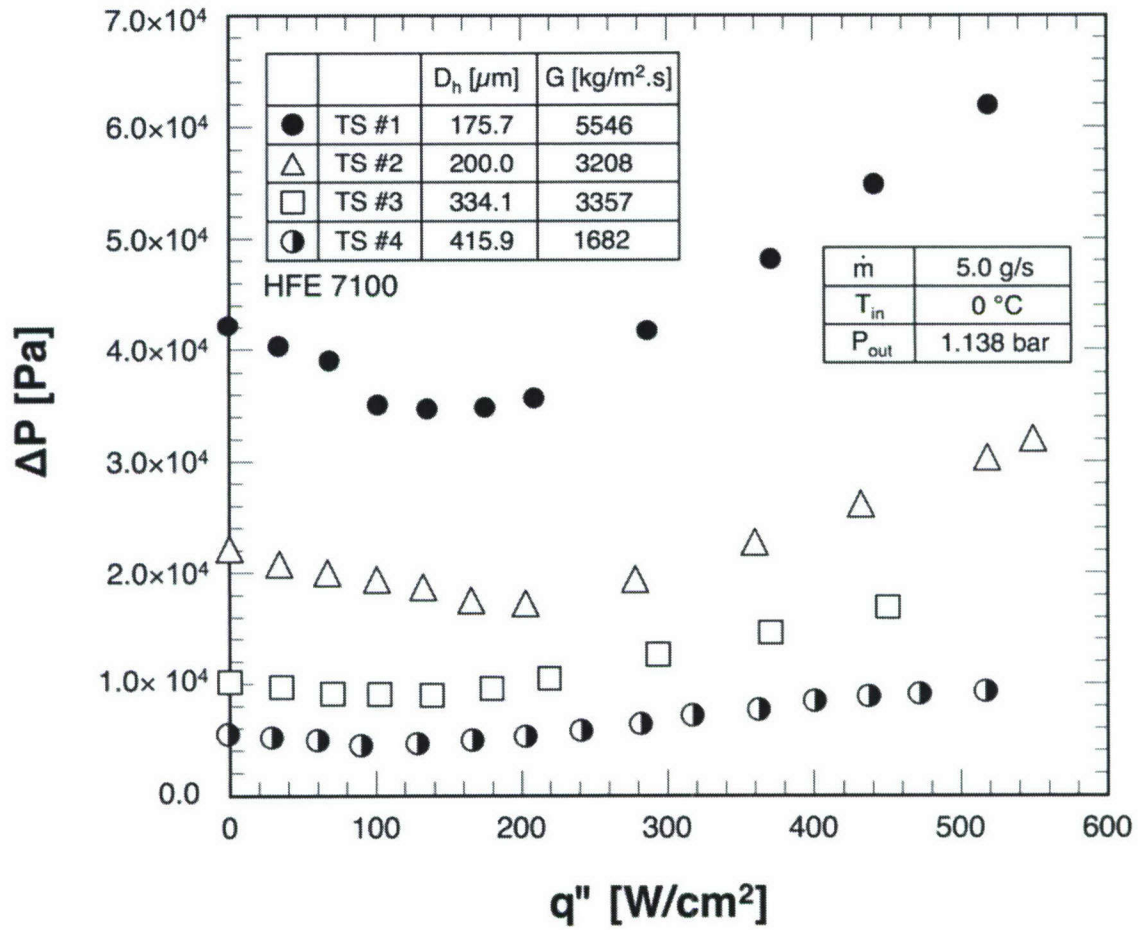


Figure II.4.2 Variation of pressure drop with heat flux for different micro-channel geometries and mass velocities.

II.4.1.2 Evaluation of Prior Correlations

Past studies have followed two general approaches to evaluating and correlating subcooled boiling pressure drop data. The first consists of evaluating the individual components of pressure drop, namely friction and acceleration (also gravity for inclined flows) as suggested by Eq. (II.4.2). An appropriate two-phase flow model is adopted in evaluating each component, and approximations are used to estimate friction factor as well as the relationship between quality and void fraction. In a recent publication (Lee and Mudawar, 2005a), the author of the present study summarized homogeneous and separated flow models for predicting pressure drop for two-phase micro-channel heat sinks. These models were intended for saturated flow boiling situations only.

One difficulty in utilizing this method is the inability to determine the extent of the subcooled boiling region. Some authors suggested using the bubble departure point for this purpose (e.g., Bowring's analysis in Collier and Thome, 1994, Saha and Zuber, 1974), but, as discussed earlier, there is no definitive assessment of the validity of this approach. Other difficulties stem from the inability to predict quality and void fraction in the subcooled region with a reasonable degree of certainty. Since thermodynamic equilibrium quality is negative in this region, an apparent non-equilibrium quality must be used instead. Hoffman *et al.* (Hoffman and Kline, 1985, Hoffman and Wong, 1992) examined available correlations for quality and void fraction to evaluate subcooled boiling pressure drop. Different correlations produced drastically different predictions, and some yielded very unrealistic values.

The second approach to evaluating subcooled boiling pressure drop, which is adopted in the present study, is to normalize pressure drop data relative to adiabatic flow as discussed earlier in conjunction with Figs. II.1.2 and II.4.1. For the single-phase region, the present pressure drop data were compared to the following relation (Kays and Crawford, 1980):

$$\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta P_{ad}} = \frac{f_{sp}}{f_{sp,ad}} = \left(\frac{\mu_f}{\mu_{f,ad}} \right)^N, \quad (\text{II.4.3})$$

where $N = 0.58$ for laminar heating. Figure II.4.3 shows Eq. (II.4.3) is quite successful at predicting pressure drop data for all four test sections corresponding to laminar flow with $Re_{Dh} < 1500$.

To determine ΔP using Eq. (II.4.3), the adiabatic pressure drop must first be determined by integrating Eq. (II.4.1) across the heat sink, taking into account the variation of friction factor along this predominantly developing flow. A detailed procedure for determining single-phase pressure drop for developing flow in rectangular micro-channels is provided in Qu and Mudawar (2003a).

Bergles and Dormer (1969) performed extensive subcooled boiling pressure drop measurements for a single tube diameter of 5.08 mm. They segregated their data according to pressure, subcooling and mass flux, and developed chart type correlation plots for pressured drop estimation. Later, Tong, *et al.* (1997) combined their own data for $D_h = 1.05 - 2.44$ mm diameter tubes with the Bergles and Dormer charts, and recommended replacing the earlier charts with the following correlation:

$$\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta P_{ad}} = \left(\frac{L_{sc}}{L_{sat}} \right)^{1.3} \exp \left\{ \left(\frac{L_{sc}}{L_{sat}} \right) + 1.35 \right\} \quad \text{for } L/D_h = 25 \quad (\text{II.4.4a})$$

and

$$\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta P_{ad}} = \left(\frac{L_{sc}}{L_{sat}} \right)^{1.3} \exp \left\{ \left(\frac{L_{sc}}{L_{sat}} \right) + 0.4 \right\} \quad \text{for } L/D_h = 50, \quad (\text{II.4.4b})$$

where L_{sc} and L_{sat} are, respectively, the length of the subcooled boiling region (from the end of the single-phase region) and the length measured from the inlet that is required to bring the fluid to saturated state. For a rectangular micro-channel, the latter length is given by

$$L_{sat} = \frac{GW_{ch}H_{ch}}{q''(W_{ch} + W_w)} c_{p,f} (T_{sat} - T_{in}), \quad (\text{II.4.5})$$

The L/D_h values for the test sections used in the present study are close to those given in Eqs. (II.4.4a) and (II.4.4b) ($L/D_h = 56.8, 50.0, 29.9$ and 24.0 for TS #1, TS #2, TS #3 and TS #4, respectively). However, estimating L_{sc} for the present data is quite

difficult because of both the small length of the micro-channels and the difficulty detecting ONB. To resolve this problem, only data corresponding to conditions where subcooled boiling was observed over the entire length (*i.e.*, $L_{sc} = L$) are examined. Figure II.4.4 shows significant departure of predictions based on Eqs. (II.4.4a) and (II.4.4b) from those specific data in terms of both slope and magnitude. This departure can be attributed to several factors. First, the two correlations contain five key parameters: mass velocity, inlet subcooling, outlet pressure, and two geometrical parameters (D_h and L/D_h ratio). There are appreciable differences between the parameters of the database from which the correlations were derived and those of the present study. For example, hydraulic diameter is 2.5 - 14 times smaller, mass velocity 5 - 60 times smaller, and pressure 6 - 9 times lower than the earlier database. Another key difference is working fluid. Past correlations, which were intended mainly for nuclear applications, used water as working fluid. The fluid used in the present study, HFE 7100, has far smaller latent heat of vaporization and surface tension than water; it is also far more wetting.

The weak predictions displayed in Fig. II.4.4 highlight the need for new models and/or correlations that are specifically suited for micro-channel flows and can tackle different types of fluids. Those are key objectives of ongoing research efforts by the author.

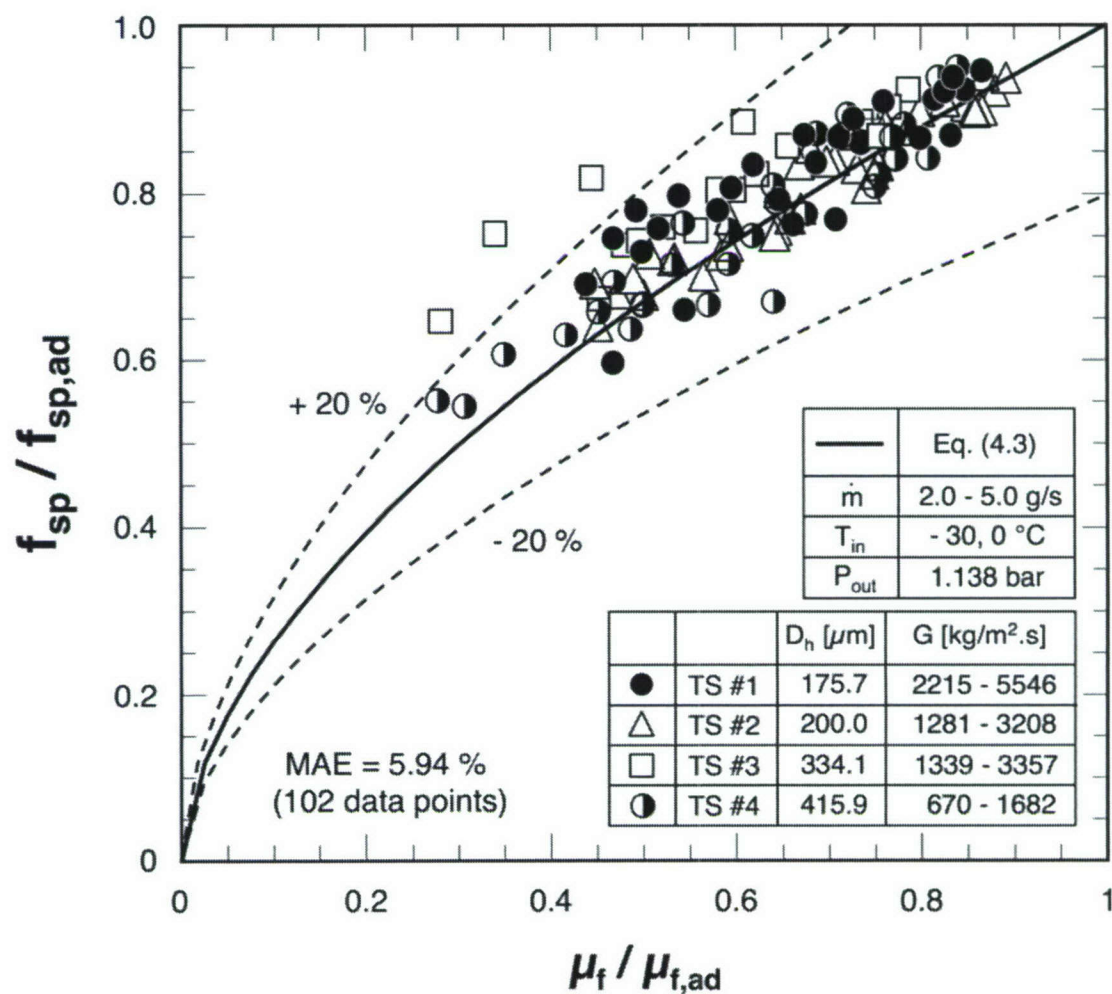


Figure II.4.3 Comparison of single-phase pressure drop data with predictions based on Eq. (II.4.3).

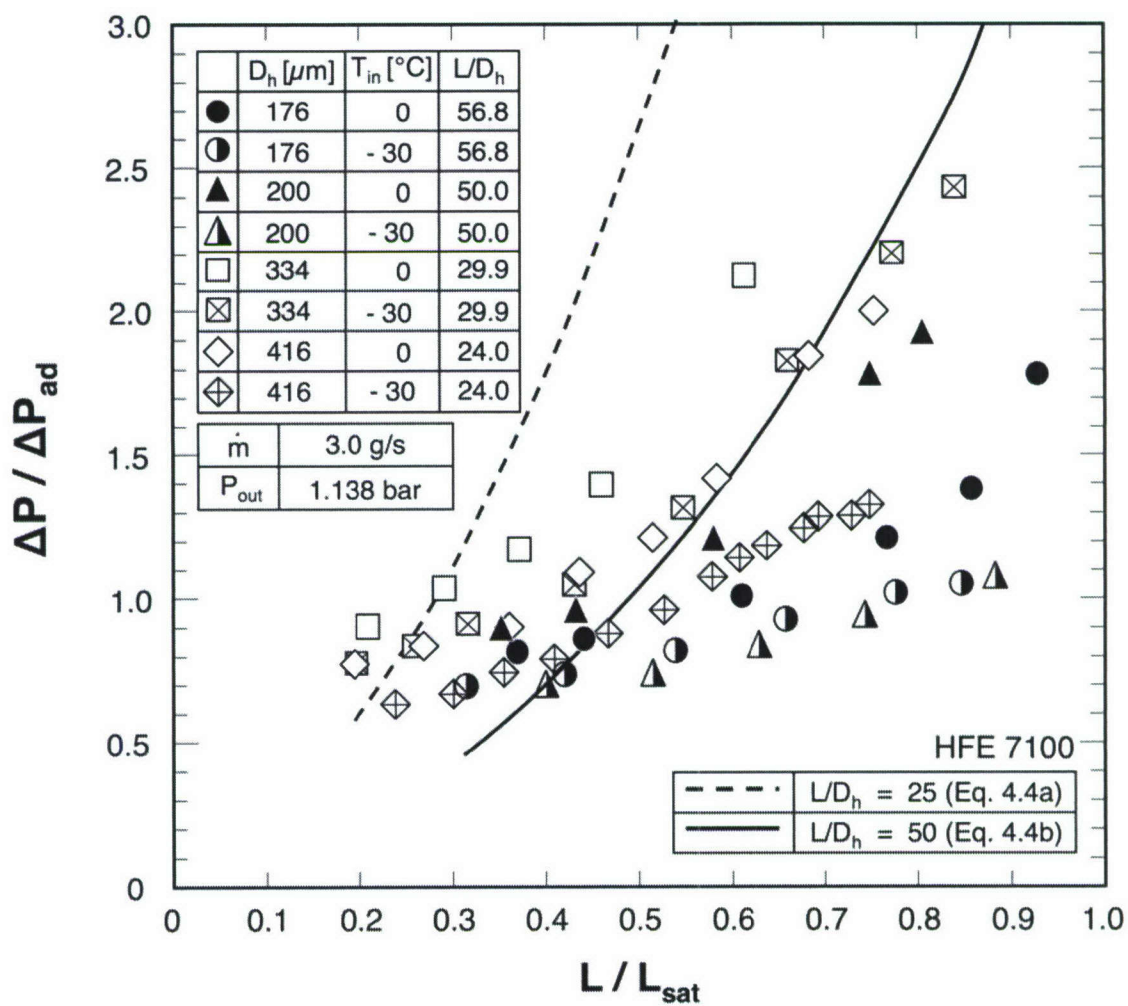


Figure II.4.4 Comparison of subcooled pressure drop data with predictions based on Eqs. (II.4.4a) and (II.4.4b).

II.4.2 Heat Transfer Results

II.4.2.1 Boiling Curves

Figure II.4.5 shows boiling curves for TS #4, which has the largest hydraulic diameter of $D_h = 416 \mu\text{m}$. These tests produced remarkable performance, exceeding 700 W/cm^2 for the highest mass velocity case. Interestingly, the relatively large hydraulic diameter for this particular test section produced the lowest mass velocity for a given flow rate compared to the other three test sections. This resulted in poorer cooling performance for TS #4 than the other test sections. This implies cooling performance well above 700 W/cm^2 is possible with the smaller hydraulic diameters. Those cases were not attempted because their pressure drop at high mass velocities exceeded the capability of the pump used in the present study. Efforts are underway to modify the loop in preparation for future experiments involving high flow rates with the three smaller hydraulic diameters.

Figure II.4.5(a) shows the effects of mass flow rate on boiling performance for TS #4. With the inlet temperature held constant, there is very little effect of flow rate on the nucleate boiling region. This means the heat transfer coefficient in this region is independent of mass velocity. The effects of flow rate are evident mostly in the single-phase region and at CHF. Higher flow rates are shown shifting the single-phase data upwards and delaying ONB to higher heat fluxes and higher surface temperatures. Higher CHF values are also achieved by increasing the flow rate. Notice that CHF conditions were reached with only the lower flow rates. Since the nucleate boiling region for the higher flow rates exceeded 700 W/cm^2 , temperatures in the test module were quite elevated for both the cartridge heaters and fiberglass plastic parts, prompting the operator to halt the testing even before CHF was reached. Efforts are underway to improve the test module's design to enable future testing at yet higher heat fluxes.

Figure II.4.5(b) shows the effects of inlet temperature on boiling performance. Prominently captured in this plot are the two distinct nucleate boiling regions, each is associated with a different inlet temperature. This departure is the result of representing

the temperature axis as the difference between wall and inlet rather than saturation temperature. Increasing subcooling is shown delaying ONB and increasing CHF.

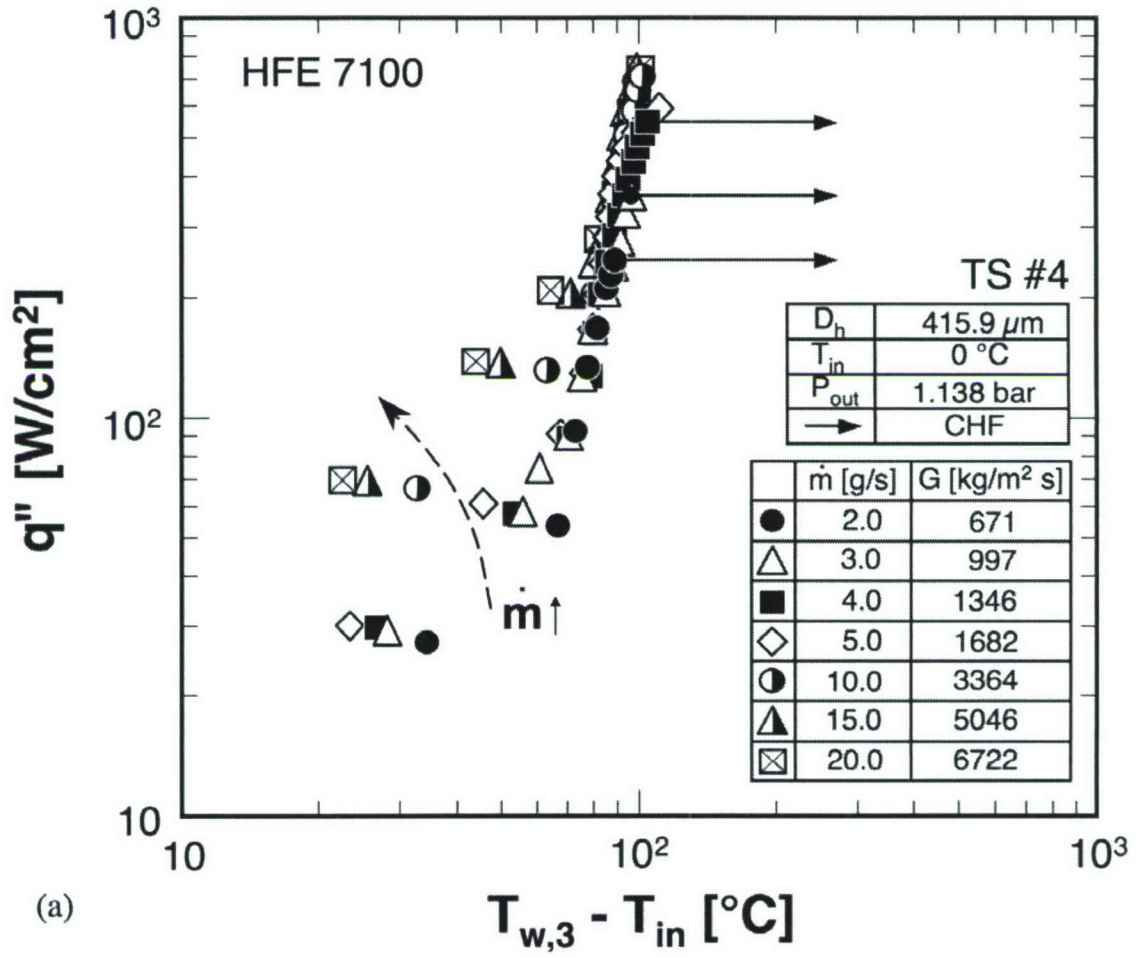


Figure II.4.5 Subcooled boiling curves for TS #4 ($D_h = 415.9 \mu\text{m}$)
for (a) different flow rates and (b) different inlet temperatures.

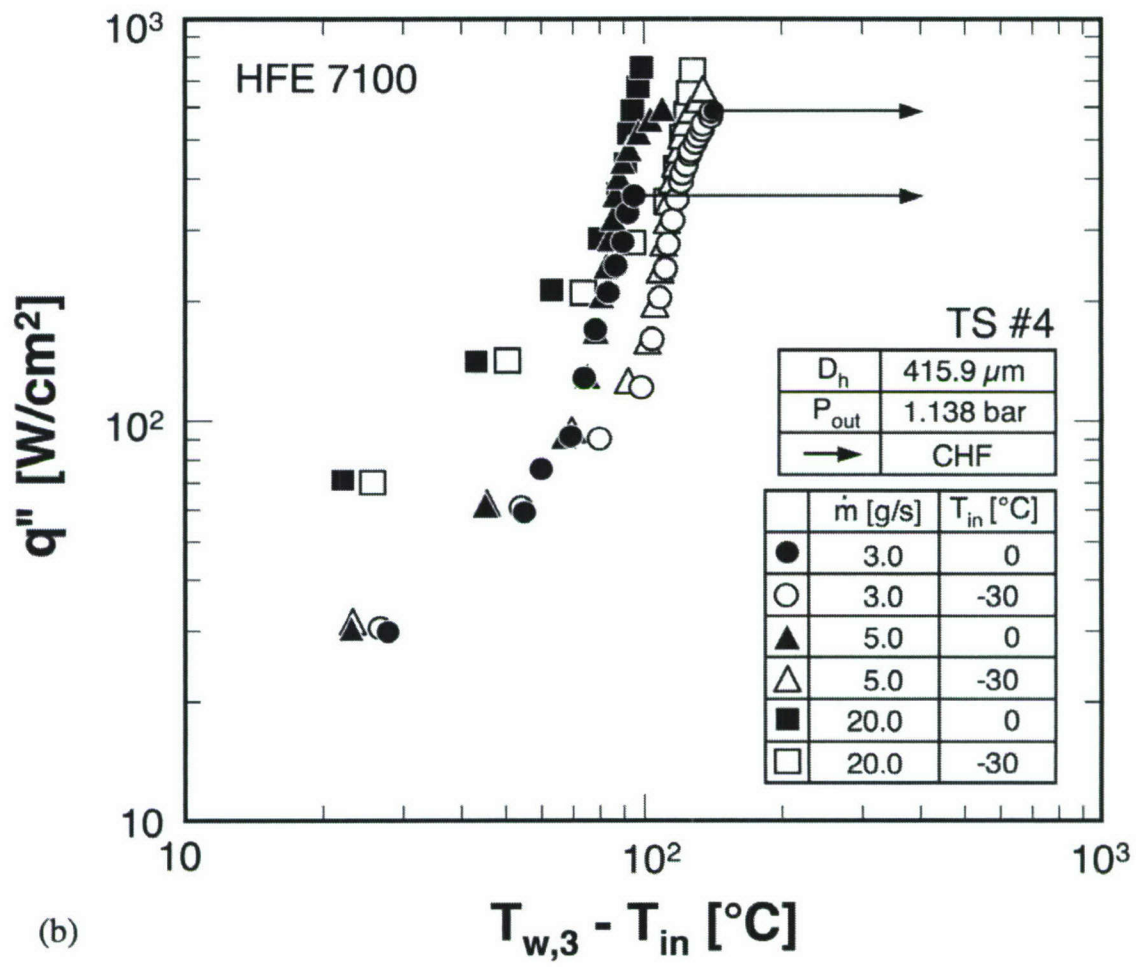


Figure II.4.5 continued.

II.4.2.2 Heat Transfer Coefficient Data

Figure II.4.6 shows for TS #4 the variation of mean heat transfer coefficient, which is average of local heat transfer coefficients for three micro-channel base locations above the thermocouples, with the mean of the three base temperatures at the same locations. Values of the local heat transfer coefficient and channel bottom wall temperature were determined using an iterative technique described in the chapter II.2.4. With a saturation temperature for HFE 7100 of 63 °C (based on outlet pressure), Fig. II.4.6 shows phase change occurs 5 to 14 °C above saturation temperature, depending on flow rate and inlet temperature. Before this point, cooling is the result of single-phase heat transfer to liquid. The transition to nucleate boiling is marked by a sharp increase in the magnitude of the heat transfer coefficient.

For fully developed laminar internal flow, single-phase heat transfer is associated with a constant Nusselt number, regardless of mass flow rate. However, Fig. II.4.6 shows mild changes in the heat transfer coefficient with flow rate because most of the micro-channel length in the present study consisted of developing entrance flow. Within this region, increasing mass flow rate (and therefore Reynolds number) increases the extent of the entrance region, resulting in a higher average single-phase heat transfer coefficient. Inlet temperature has a relatively minor effect, mostly in the form of mild variations in liquid properties. Figure II.4.6 shows nucleate boiling data follow a well-defined trend, fairly independent of flow rate or inlet subcooling except for near-CHF data.

Figure II.4.7(a) shows the variation of average heat transfer coefficient with mean wall temperature for the four test sections at the same inlet temperature and same flow rate. For fully developed laminar flow, the heat transfer coefficient is inversely proportional to hydraulic diameter. However, as discussed above, heat transfer coefficient in the present study is strongly influenced by entrance effects. Figure II.4.7(a) shows TS #1, which has the smallest hydraulic diameter of $D_h = 176 \mu\text{m}$, yields the highest single-phase heat transfer coefficient. However, TS #2 (200 μm) and TS #3 (334 μm) yield fairly equal \bar{h} values despite the large difference in their hydraulic

diameters. This trend can be explained by the increased \bar{h} for TS #3 resulting from a higher Reynolds number. There are also secondary effects for all tests sections resulting from micro-channel aspect ratio.

The nucleate boiling data in Fig. II.4.7(a) show a more complicated trend. Here, TS #4, which has the largest hydraulic diameter and therefore smallest mass velocity, shows the poorest two-phase performance. However, the highest heat transfer coefficients are achieved with TS #3 followed by TS #2 and then TS #1. Therefore, decreasing hydraulic diameter does not yield a monotonic increase in two-phase heat transfer coefficient. Secondary effects, such as channel width, sidewall thickness and aspect ratio, must play additional role.

This complex trend may be explained by the flow visualization results discussed in the chapter II.3. Aside from its larger D_h and lower G compared to both TS #1 and TS #2, TS #3 also has larger micro-channel width, W_{ch} . As discussed in the chapter II.3, narrow width facilitates earlier transition from bubbly to slug flow, which suppresses nucleate boiling activity and reduces the two-phase heat transfer coefficient. This is clearly manifest in Fig. II.4.7(a) in the form of superior two-phase performance for TS #3 compared to both TS #1 and TS #2. This may also be the reason why TS #2 provides better two-phase heat transfer performance compared to TS #1. While both have the same micro-channel width and wall thickness, TS #2 has deeper micro-channels (*i.e.*, larger H_{ch}), allowing more room for bubbles to move along the micro-channel with reduced interaction with other bubbles compared to TS #1.

The effects of hydraulic diameter and subcooling on the two-phase heat transfer coefficient are also shown in Fig. II.4.7(b). For a given heat flux, smaller micro-channels delay the commencement of subcooled boiling because of both their high mass velocity and increased wetted area, as was discussed in the chapter II.3. Higher subcooling produces a similar trend.

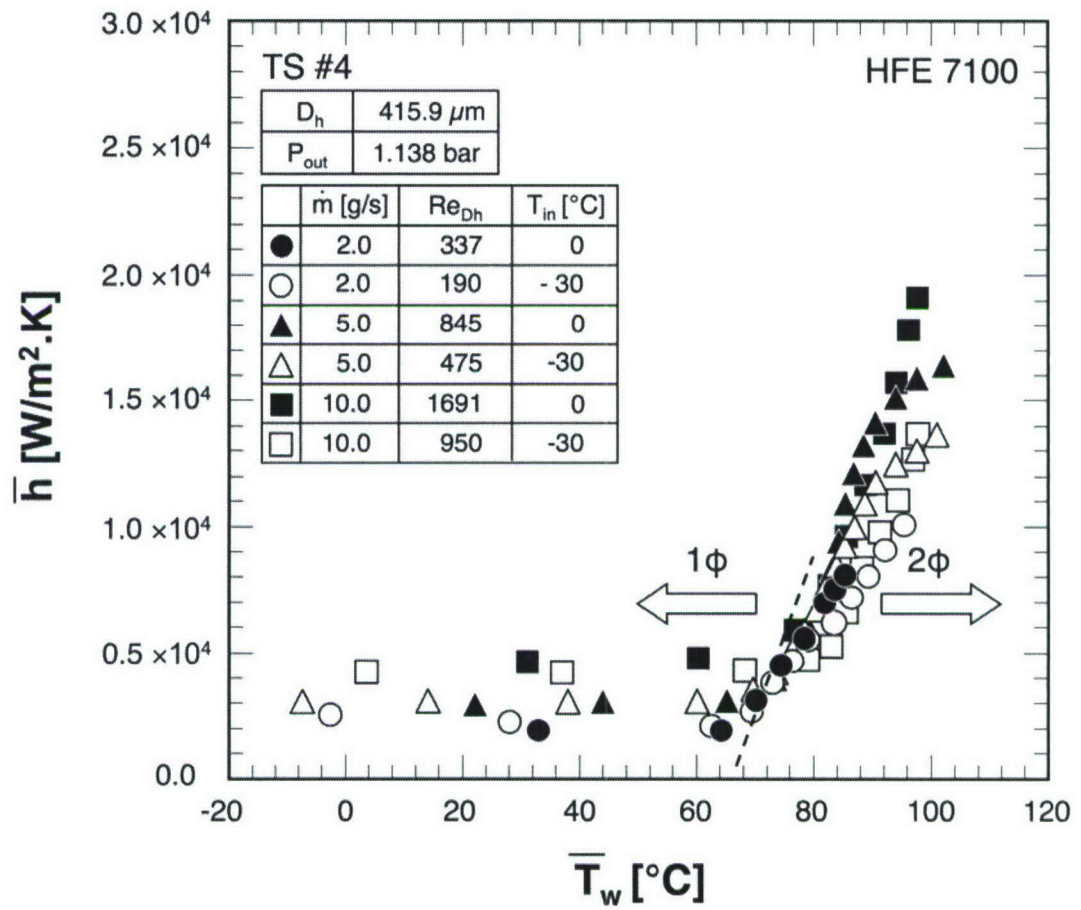


Figure II.4.6 Variation of mean heat transfer coefficient with mean wall temperature for test section TS #4 for different flow rates and two inlet temperatures.

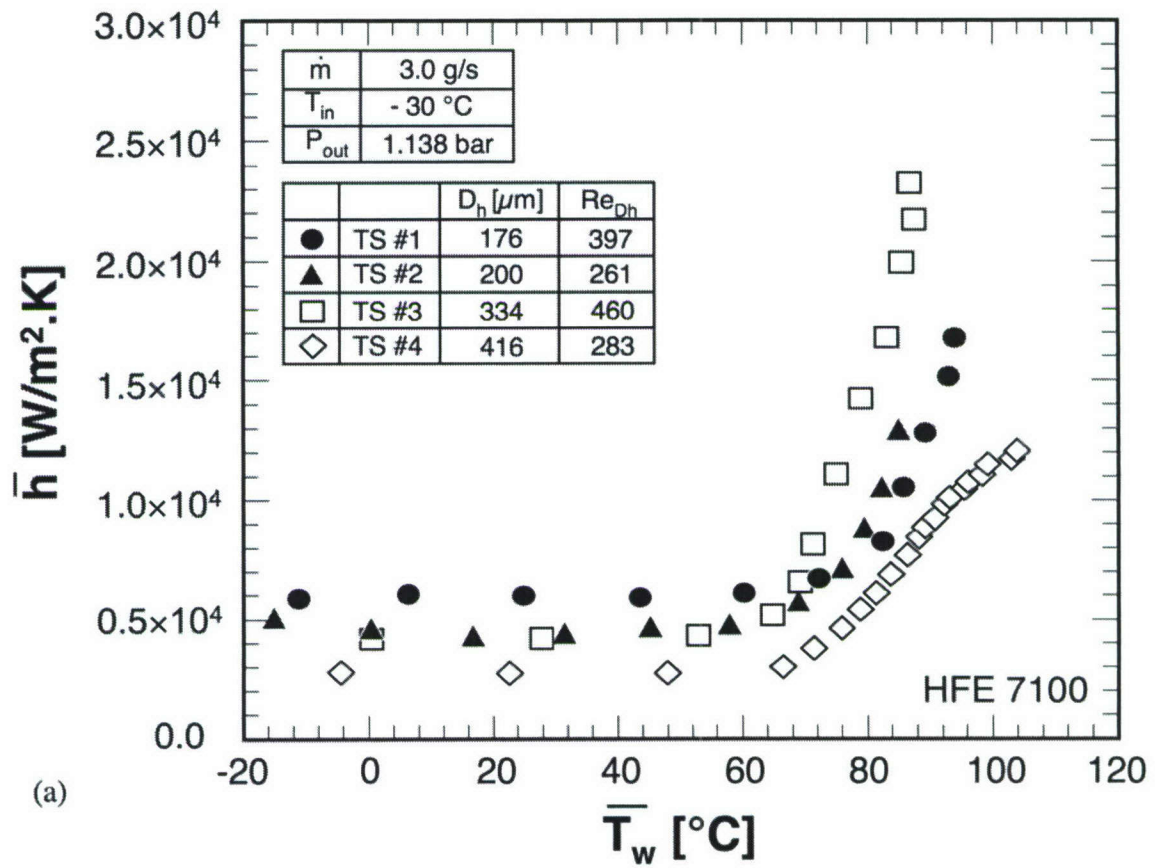


Figure II.4.7 (a) Variation of average heat transfer coefficient with average wall temperature for different hydraulic diameters. (b) Variation of average heat transfer coefficient with heat flux for different hydraulic diameters and two inlet temperatures.

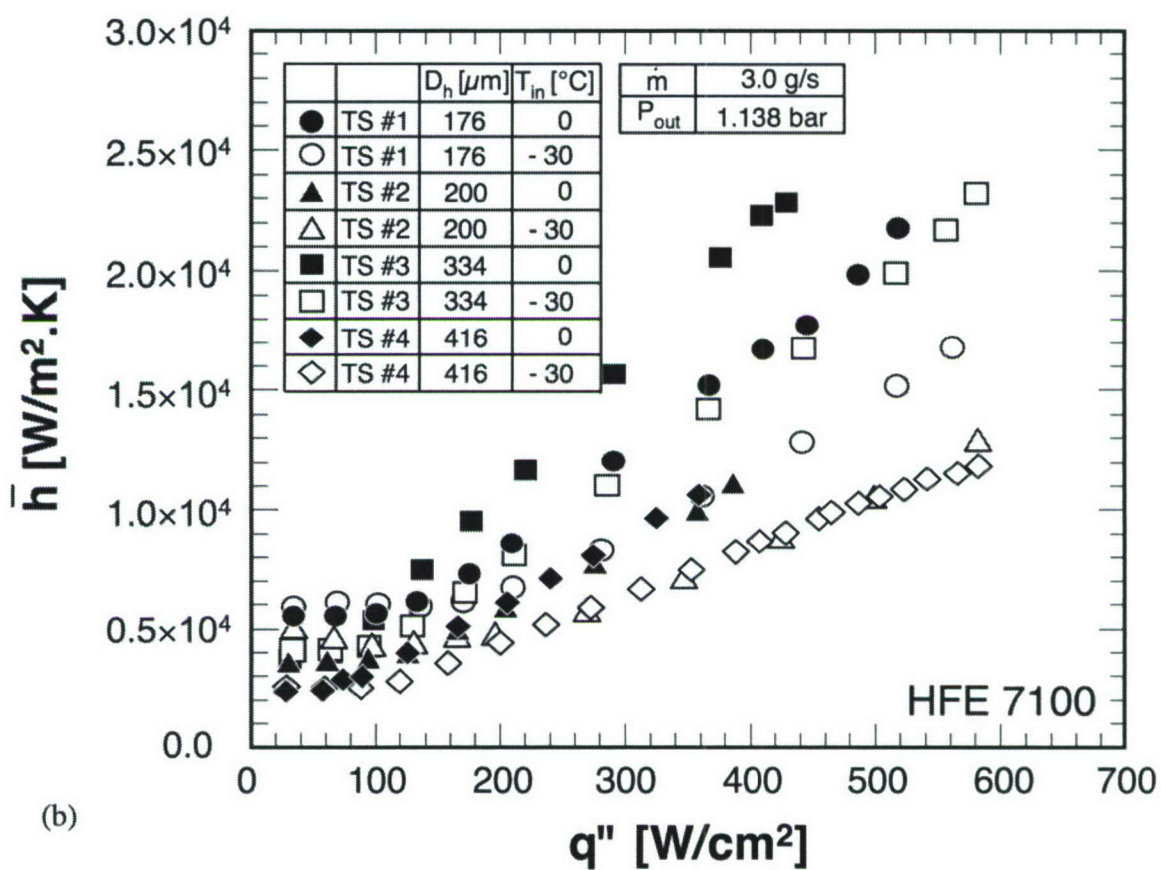


Figure II.4.7 continued.

II.4.2.3 Evaluation of Prior Correlations

Very few correlations are available in the literature for the prediction of subcooled boiling heat transfer. Table II.4.1 provides a select summary of correlations whose predictions are compared to the present data. The Shah correlation for saturated boiling has shown favorable predictive capability for macro circular tubes (Shah, 1976). He later modified his original correlation to tackle subcooled boiling as well (Shah, 1977). Kandlikar also developed a correlation for saturated boiling (Kandlikar, 1990), which he later modified to fit subcooled boiling data for various types of fluids, water and refrigerants (Kandlikar, 1998). The correlations of both Shah and Kandlikar require knowledge of the single-phase heat transfer coefficient, h_{sp} . Since the primary goal here is to assess the capability of correlations at predicting two-phase heat transfer, h_{sp} in these correlations was replaced by mean values measured in the present study.

Figure II.4.8 compares predictions based on the Shah saturated and subcooled boiling correlations, as well as Kandlikar's subcooled boiling correlations, to present data for the four tests sections corresponding to $T_{in} = 0$ °C. Kandlikar's saturated boiling correlation is excluded because it yielded unusually poor predictions. In the initial stages of the subcooled boiling region, Fig. II.4.8 shows Shah's subcooled boiling correlation overpredicts the present data, while his saturated boiling correlation underpredicts; the data fall midway between the two. However, Shah's two correlations and the present data do converge at the end of the subcooled boiling region. Kandlikar correlations on the other hand show poor overall predictions. Figure II.4.9 shows fairly similar predictive trends for $T_{in} = -30$ °C.

Another type of subcooled boiling correlation consists of presenting the ratio of subcooled boiling Nusselt number to single-phase Nusselt number as a function of boiling number, Jacob number, and density ratio. Such are the correlations by Papell (1963) and Moles and Shaw (1972). Figure II.4.10 shows the Papell correlation predicts the present data with a mean absolute error of 69.8%. Interestingly, better predictions are achieved with lower aspect ratio test sections (TS #1 and TS #3) than those with

higher aspect ratio (TS #2 and TS #4). However, it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions about this trend in the absence of any geometrical parameters in the correlation itself. Table II.4.1 shows predictions of the Moles and Shaw correlation are far worse than those of Papell's.

II.4.2.4 New Correlation

While none of the prior correlations provided accurate predictions, Shah's saturated and subcooled correlations showed some promise. Since the present data fell about halfway between the two correlations, the following new correlation was derived that yields values close to the mean of these correlations.

$$q'' = 230 Bo^{0.5} h_{sp} \left[0.828 \Delta T_{sat} + 0.463 \Delta T_{sat}^{-0.04} \Delta T_{sub}^{0.81} \right]. \quad (\text{II.4.12})$$

In this equation, the boiling number dependence of the original correlations was preserved, but the dependence on wall superheat and subcooling was adjusted to yield least mean absolute error from the data. Figure 4.11 shows this new correlation predicts 260 heat transfer data points for all four test sections with a mean absolute error of 9.1%, with almost all the data falling within $\pm 30\%$ of predicted values.

A key drawback in using Eq. (II.4.12) is the difficulty directly inferring the magnitude of the heat transfer coefficient. A second correlation is therefore suggested for direct estimation of the subcooled boiling heat transfer coefficient. Like the second group of correlations in Table II.4.1, the normalized two-phase Nusselt number is correlated according to the form

$$\frac{Nu_{tp}}{Nu_{sp}} = 90.0 Bo^{0.9} Ja^{*-0.98} We^{*0.15} \beta^{-0.42}, \quad (\text{II.4.13})$$

where

$$Ja^* = \frac{c_{p,f} \Delta T_{sub,in}}{h_{fg}}, \quad We^* = \frac{G^2 D_h}{(\rho_f - \rho_g) \sigma}, \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \frac{H_{ch}}{W_{ch}}. \quad (\text{II.4.14})$$

Unlike earlier correlations, Eq. (II.4.13) accounts for all relevant physical parameters of subcooled flow boiling in micro-channels. The effects of heat flux, inlet subcooling, surface tension and geometry are accounted for in four respective dimensionless groups: boiling number, Jacob number, Weber number and channel aspect ratio. Figure II.4.12 compares the predictions of this new correlation with experimental data for the four test sections. Although the mean absolute error for this correlation is greater than for Eq. (II.4.12), Eq. (II.4.13) enables direct calculation of the two-phase heat transfer coefficient as well as accounts for all the parameters that were shown in previous discussion of this study to influence cooling performance.

Table II.4.1 Subcooled boiling heat transfer correlations.

Author(s)	Correlations	MAE	Remarks
Shah (1976)	$q'' = 230 Bo^{0.5} h_{sp} \Delta T_{sat}$, $Bo = \frac{q''}{G h_{fg}}$	35.1 %	Saturated boiling (various Newtonian fluids except liquid metals)
Shah (1977)	$q'' = 0.54 \left\{ 230 Bo^{0.5} h_{sp} \right\} (\Delta T_{sub})^{7.83/8.33} (\Delta T_{sat})^{1/8.33}$, where $\Delta T_{sat} = T_w - T_{sat}$ and $\Delta T_{sub} = T_{sat} - T_f$	44.3 %	Subcooled boiling (water, ammonia, refrigerants, alcohols, CCl ₄ , K ₂ CO ₃ , etc)
Kandlikar (1998)	$q'' = \left[1058 (G h_{fg})^{-0.7} F_f h_{sp} \Delta T_{sat} \right]^{1/0.3}$, $F_f = 1.0$ for water	313 %	Water subcooled boiling
	$q'' = \left[1058 (G h_{fg})^{-0.7} F_f h_{sp} \Delta T_{sat} \right]^{1/0.3}$, $F_f = 1.5$ for R - 12	1381 %	Refrigerant subcooled boiling (other F_f values recommended for different refrigerants)
Papell (1963)	$\frac{Nu_{tp}}{Nu_{sp}} = 90.0 Bo^{0.7} \left(\frac{h_{fg}}{c_{p,f} \Delta T_{sub}} \right)^{0.84} \left(\frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f} \right)^{0.756}$	69.8 %	Water, ammonia
Moles and Shaw (1972)	$\frac{Nu_{tp}}{Nu_{sp}} = 78.5 Bo^{0.67} \left(\frac{h_{fg}}{c_{p,f} \Delta T_{sub}} \right)^{0.50} \left(\frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f} \right)^{-0.03} Pr_f^{0.45}$	658 %	Water, acetone, isopropyl alcohol

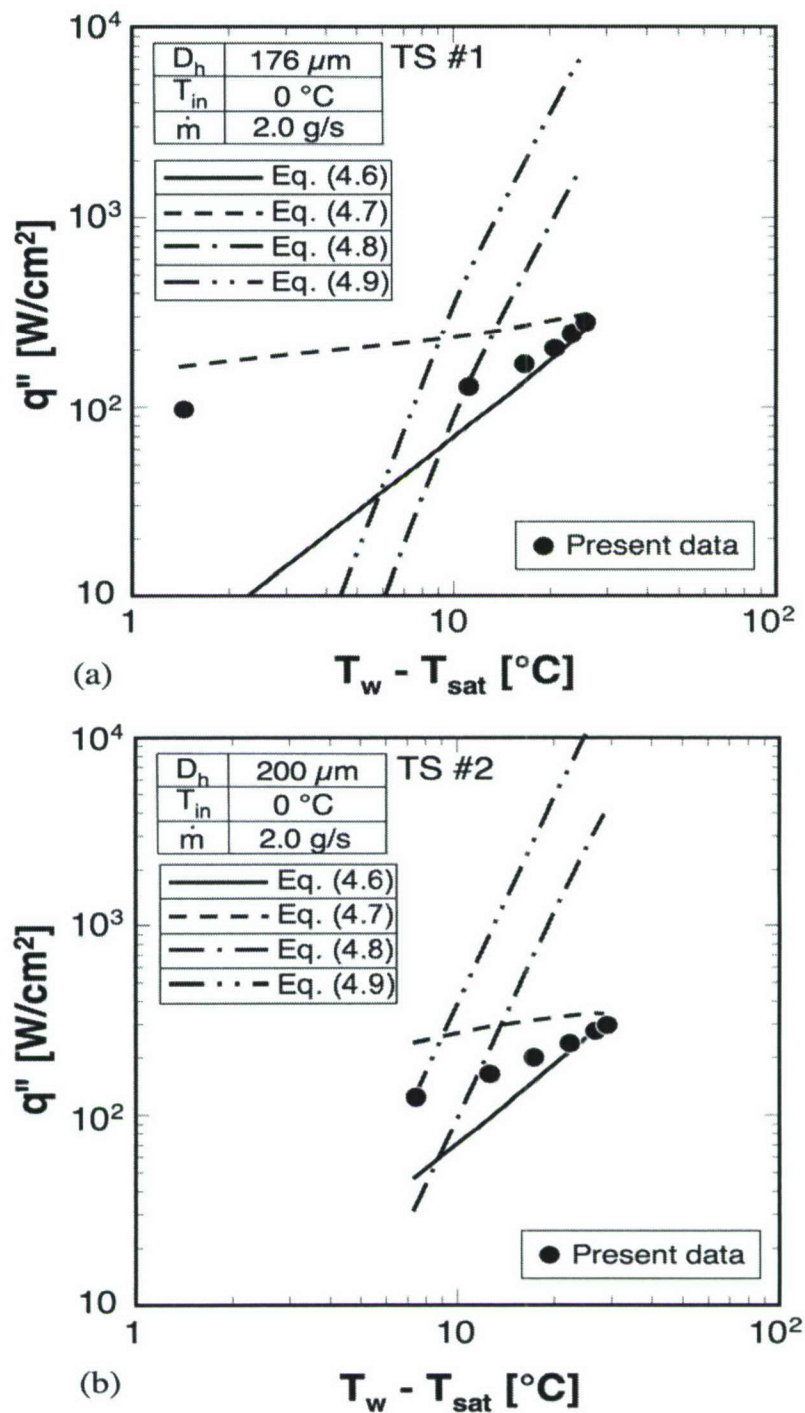


Figure II.4.8 Comparison of predictions of prior two-phase heat transfer correlations and present subcooled boiling data corresponding to $T_{in} = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ for (a) TS #1, (b) TS #2, (c) TS #3, and (d) TS #4.

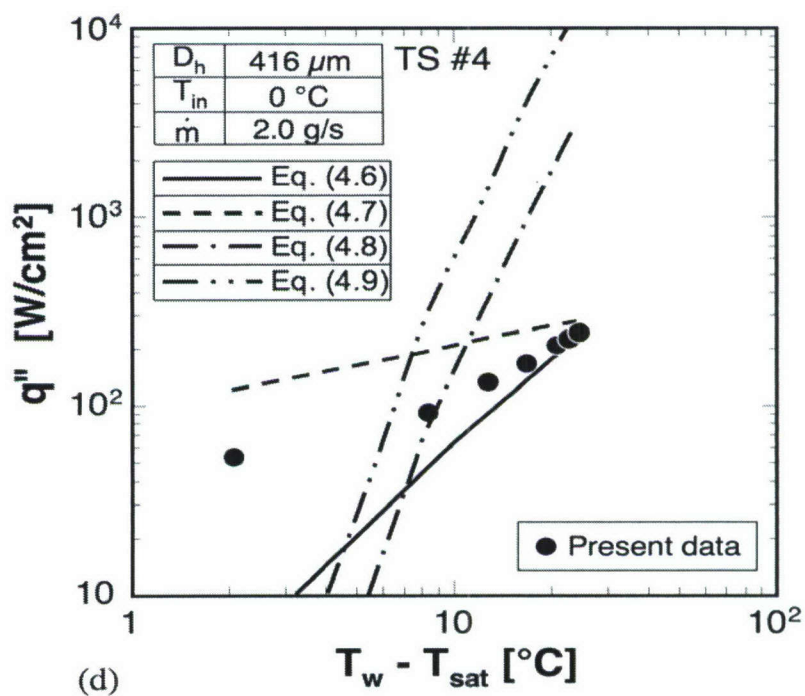
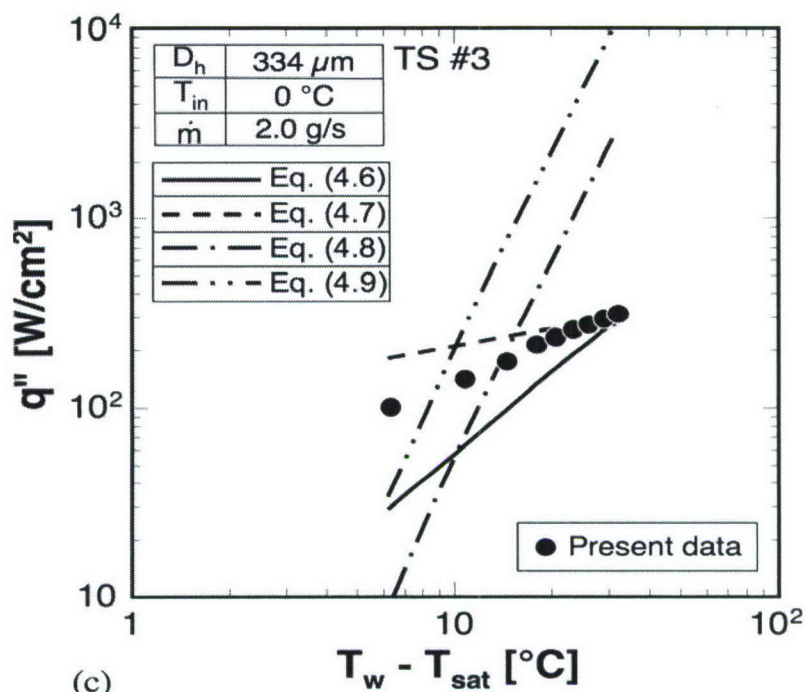


Figure II.4.8 continued.

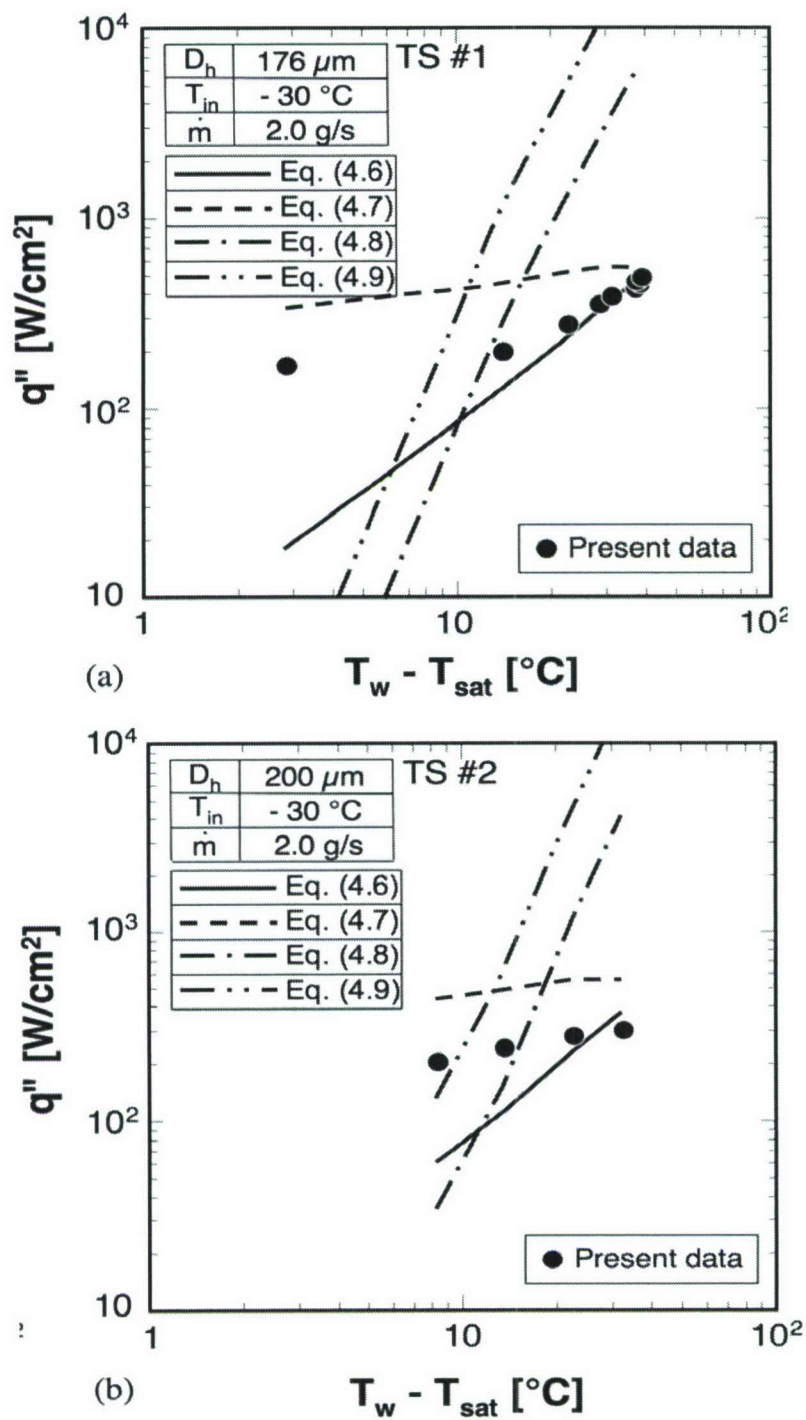


Figure II.4.9 Comparison of predictions of prior two-phase heat transfer correlations and present subcooled boiling data corresponding to $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for (a) TS #1, (b) TS #2, (c) TS #3, and (d) TS #4.

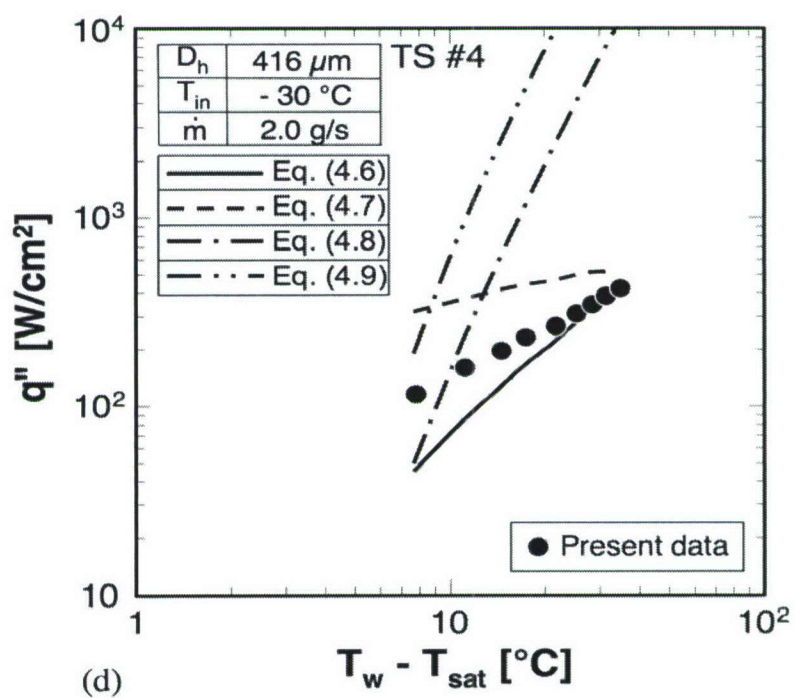
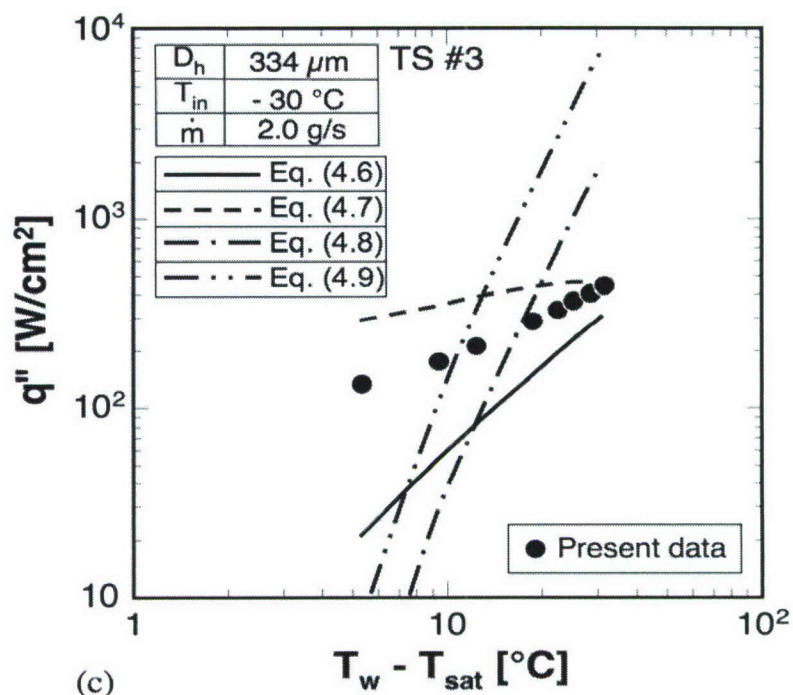


Figure II.4.9 continued.

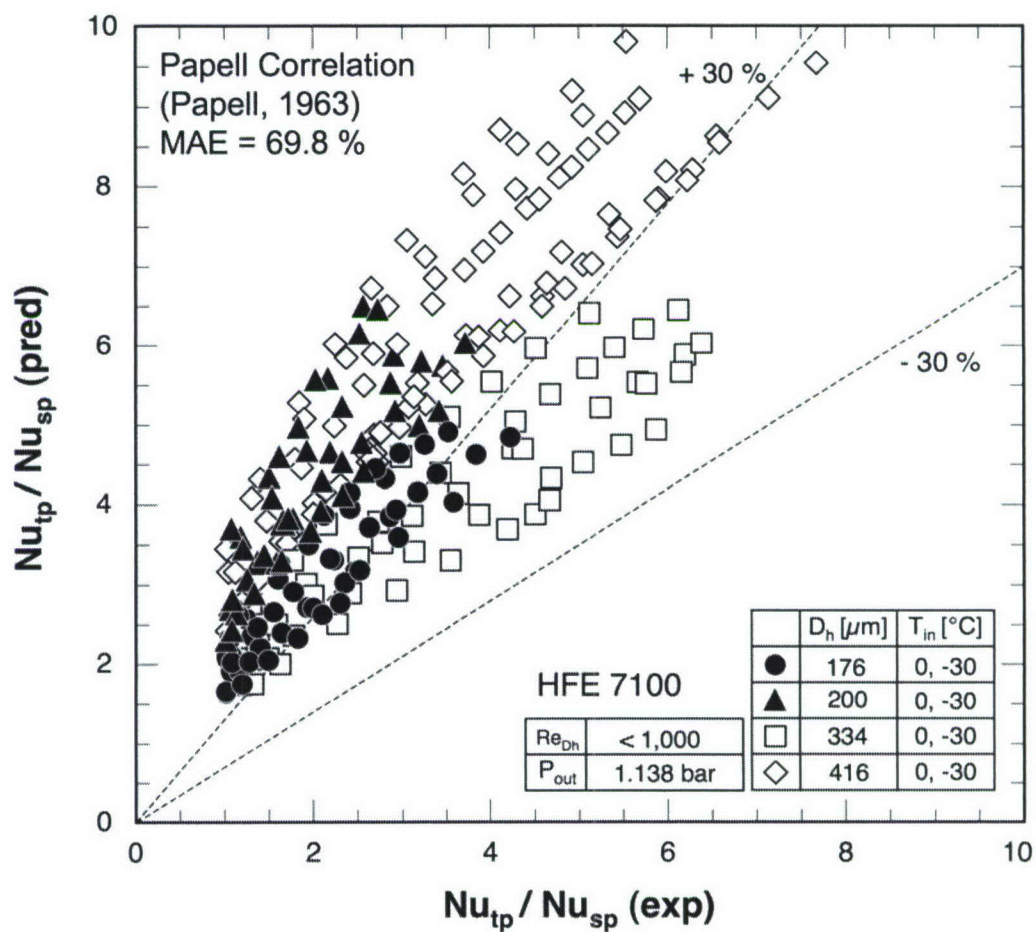


Figure II.4.10 Comparison of predictions of Papell's correlation and present subcooled boiling data.

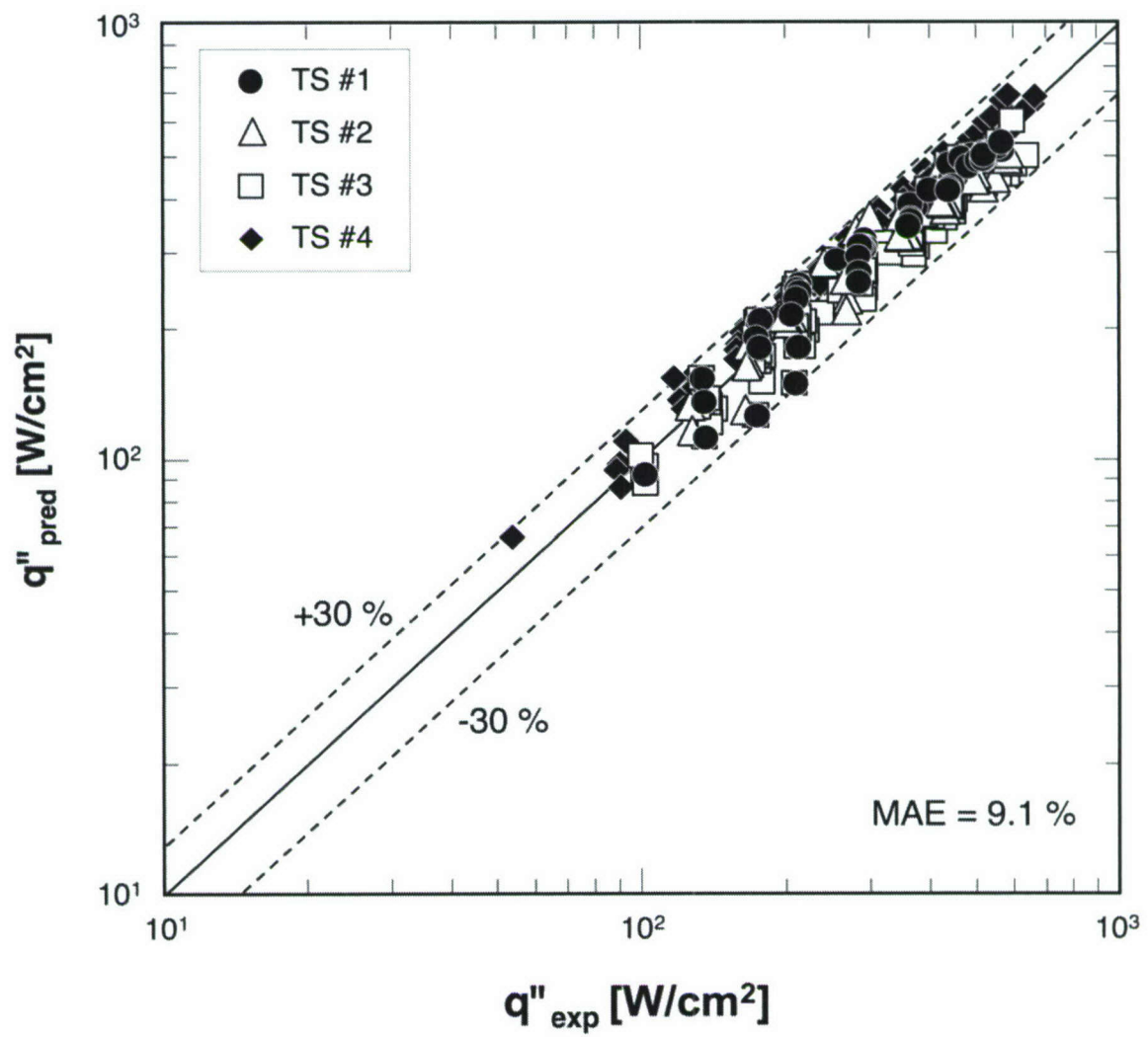


Figure II.4.11 New correlation for subcooled boiling data of four test sections.

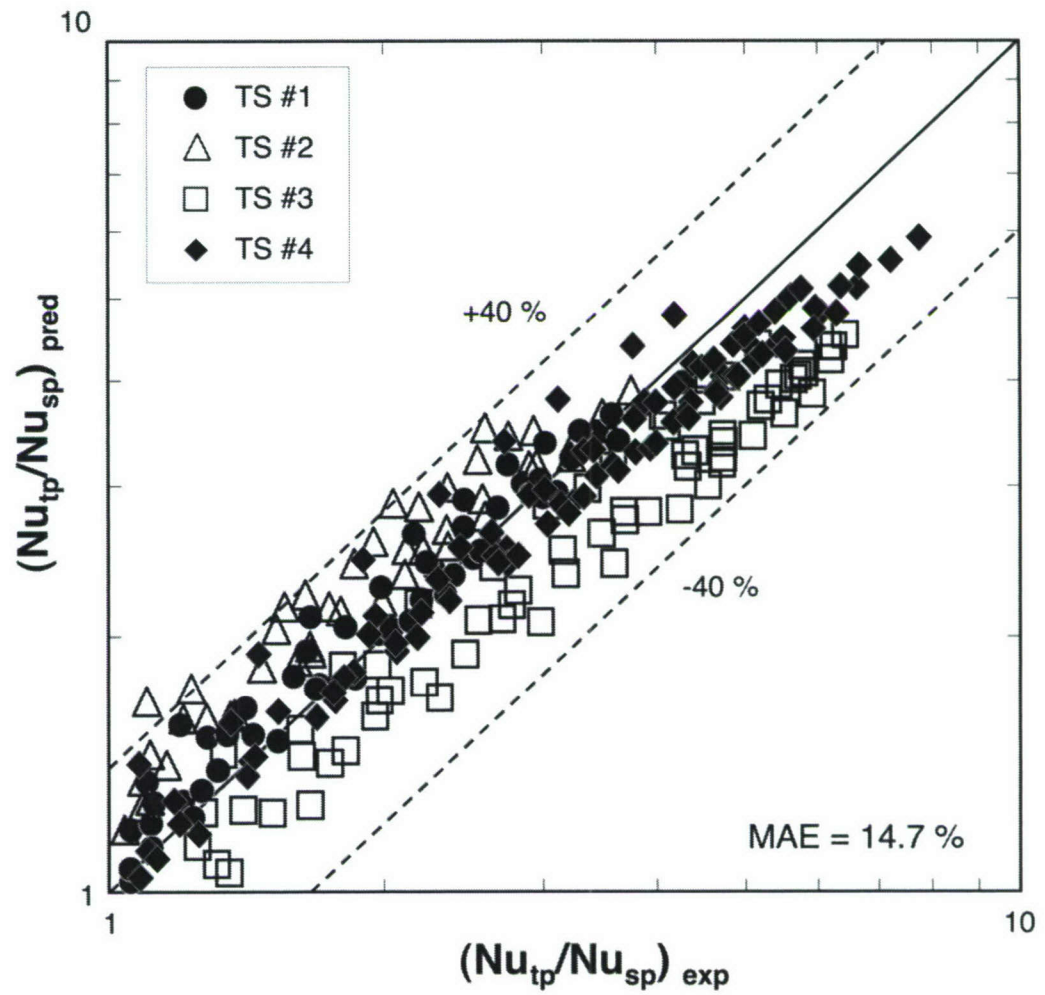


Figure II.4.12 Comparison of predictions of new normalized two-phase Nusselt number correlation and experimental data for four test sections.

II.5 DEVELOPING HOMOGENEOUS LAYER MODEL (DHLM) FOR SUBCOOLED BOILING PRESSURE DROP

II.5.1 Developing homogeneous Layer Model (DHLM)

II.5.1.1 Model Description and Assumptions

Subcooled flow boiling is initiated when bubbles begin to nucleate in a mostly subcooled liquid flow, and extends to the axial location where thermodynamic equilibrium quality reaches zero. The subcooled flow boiling region consists of two sub-regions, a highly subcooled sub-region, and the developing subcooled sub-region. Vapor void in the highly subcooled sub-region is a wall effect since strong condensation effects along the bubble interface suppress bubble growth and prevent coalescence between bubbles. The developing subcooled sub-region is initiated at the point of bubble detachment off the heating wall. Here, bubbles are able to grow and depart into the subcooled liquid stream.

Flow visualization studies in chapter II.3 shed some light on the unique nature of subcooled boiling in micro-channels. Unlike flow in long macro-channels, the transition from single-phase liquid flow or highly subcooled flow to developing subcooled boiling in short micro-channels results from a relatively mild increase in heat flux. Furthermore, the subcooled boiling engulfs the entire length of the micro-channel at once, dominated mostly by bubbly flow and to a lesser extent slug flow. This justifies using a homogeneous flow description to model the vapor layer.

Figure II.5.1 shows a schematic representation of the *Developing Homogeneous Layer Model (DHLM)* model adopted in this study. This model is constructed specifically for developing subcooled flow boiling in micro-channels and should be

extended to neither the single-phase region nor the saturated boiling region. This model considers conditions where developed subcooled boiling engulfs the entire length of the micro-channels. Thus, it precludes an upstream single-phase region or downstream saturated boiling region along the heated wall. Extension of the developing subcooled boiling layer both upstream and downstream of the heated length as shown in Fig. II.5.1(a) will be discussed later.

DHLM assumes the flow consists of two layers, a subcooled liquid core and a homogeneous two-phase flow layer; the latter represents the bubbly region of the flow. The homogeneous layer thickens along the flow direction due to wall heating. Key assumptions of the model are as follows:

- (1) The flow is one-dimensional, meaning flow velocity in each layer is constant at any axial location.
- (2) The flow is steady.
- (3) The liquid layer flow is laminar and incompressible, also because of the large density and relatively strong momentum of liquid relative to the two-phase layer, the liquid velocity is assumed constant along the flow direction.
- (4) The two-phase layer behaves as a homogeneous two-phase mixture whose properties are weighted averages of those of liquid and vapor.
- (5) There is no thermal equilibrium between the two layers. The two-phase layer is assumed to maintain saturated temperature, while the liquid layer is subcooled. In the flow direction, heat supplied from the wall increases quality in the homogenous layer and liquid temperature. Heat is also transferred between the two layers.
- (6) Pressure is uniform across the flow area of the micro-channel at every axial location.
- (7) As shown in Fig. II.5.1(b), an idealized flat interface is assumed between the homogeneous two-phase layer and the liquid layer to determine mean thickness of the two-phase layer from the model. As shown in Fig. II.5.1(c), the actual interface is distorted by greater void toward the sidewalls and lesser void near the center of the micro-channel because of heating from the sidewalls.

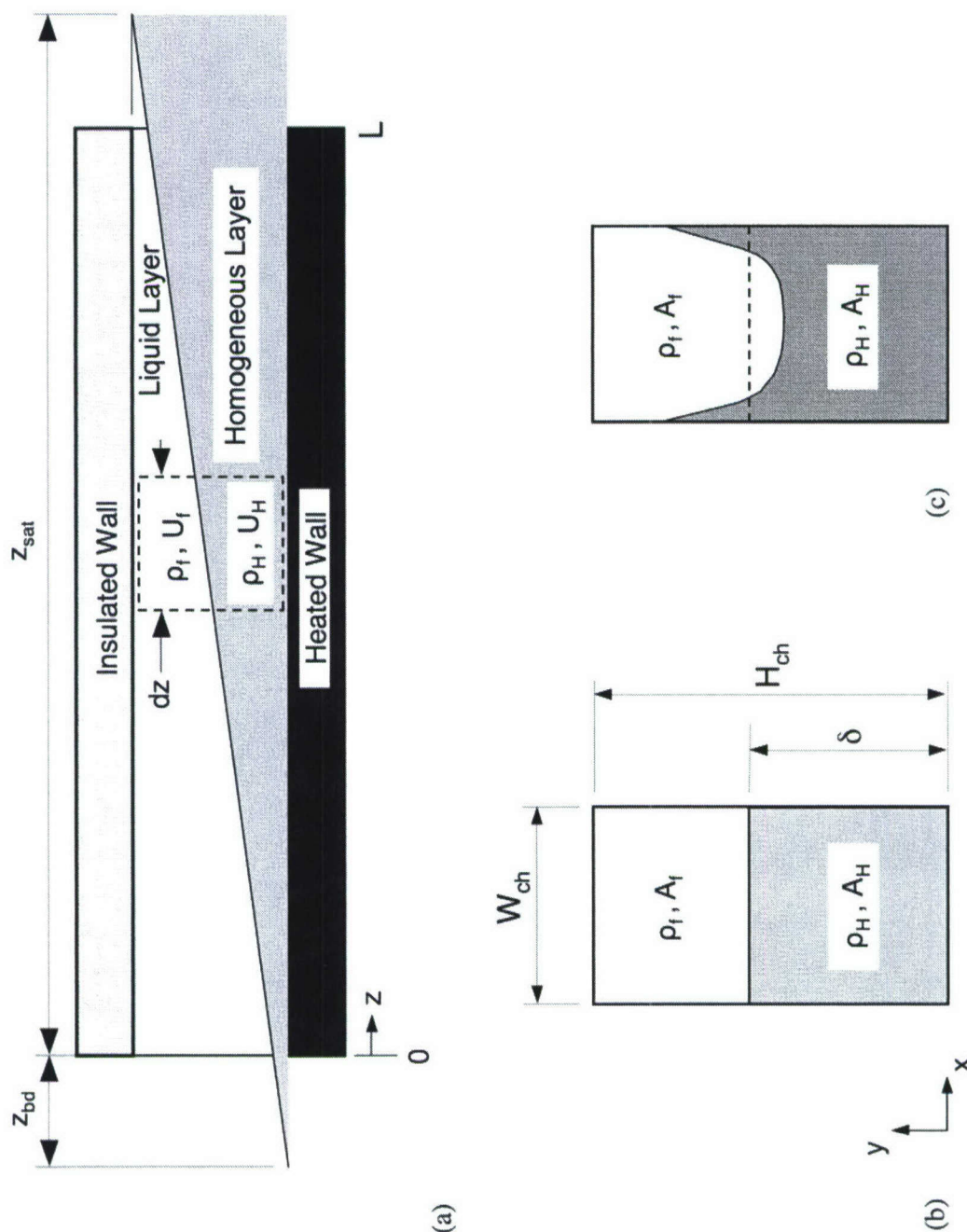


Figure II.5.1 (a) Side view and (b) cross-sectional view representation of Developing Homogeneous Layer Model (DHLM). (c) Cross-sectional view of actual interface between homogeneous two-phase layer and liquid layer in the presence of sidewall heating effects.

II.5.1.2 Control Volume Conservation Equations

Figure II.5.2(a) shows mass flow terms for a micro-channel control volume of length Δz along the flow direction. Mass conservations for the liquid layer and the homogeneous layer can be expressed, respectively, as

$$\frac{d(\rho_f U_f A_f)}{dz} + K_i = 0, \quad (\text{II.5.1})$$

and

$$\frac{d(G_H A_H)}{dz} - K_i = 0, \quad (\text{II.5.2})$$

where $G_H = \rho_H U_H$, the mass velocity of the homogeneous layer, and K_i is the rate of mass transfer from the liquid layer to the homogeneous layer per unit axial distance. Since liquid density is assumed constant, it can taken out of the derivative in Eq. (II.5.1).

Figure II.5.2(b) shows energy conservation for the homogeneous layer alone. Heat supplied from the wall is consumed in used in two different ways. A portion of this heat increases the temperature of the liquid mass transferred between the liquid layer and the homogeneous layers from T_f to T_{sat} . The remaining portion increases the latent heat of the homogeneous layer. Therefore, energy conservation for the homogenous layer can be expressed as

$$q''(W_{ch} + W_w) = \frac{d}{dz}(G_H A_H h_H) + K_i c_{p,f}(T_{sat} - T_f), \quad (\text{II.5.3})$$

Because of the subcooled boiling state of the flow, the enthalpy, h_H , of the homogeneous layer requires careful assessment. This issue will be discussed in the next section.

Figure II.5.3 shows the momentum changes and forces acting on the control volume. Momentum conservation for the liquid layer and the homogeneous layer can be expressed, respectively, as

$$\frac{d(\rho_f U_f^2 A_f)}{dz} + K_i U_i = -A_f \frac{dP}{dz} - P \frac{dA_f}{dz} - \tau_{f,w} [W_{ch} + 2(H_{ch} - \delta)] - \tau_i W \quad (\text{II.5.4})$$

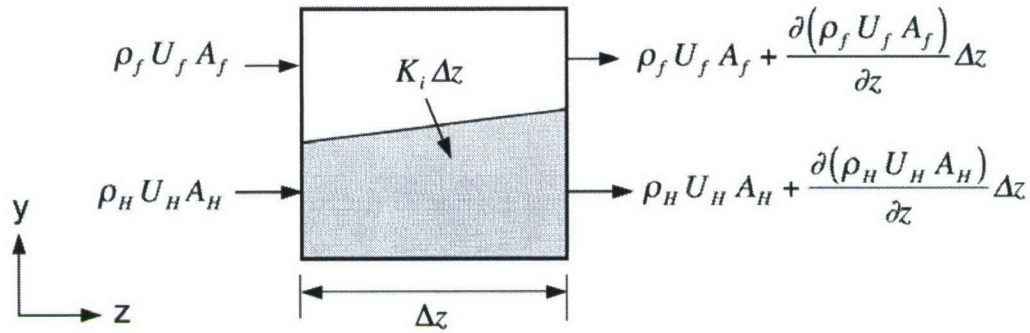
and
$$\frac{d(\rho_H U_H^2 A_H)}{dz} - K_i U_i = -A_H \frac{dP}{dz} - P \frac{dA_H}{dz} - \tau_{H,w} [W_{ch} + 2\delta] W + \tau_i W. \quad (\text{II.5.5})$$

Combining Eqs. (II.5.4) and (II.5.5) eliminates both the interfacial momentum and interfacial friction terms, resulting in the following equation

$$\frac{d(\rho_f U_f^2 A_f)}{dz} + \frac{d(\rho_H U_H^2 A_H)}{dz} = -A \frac{dP}{dz} - \left\{ \tau_{f,w} [W_{ch} + 2(H_{ch} - \delta)] + \tau_{H,w} [W_{ch} + 2\delta] \right\}. \quad (\text{II.5.6})$$

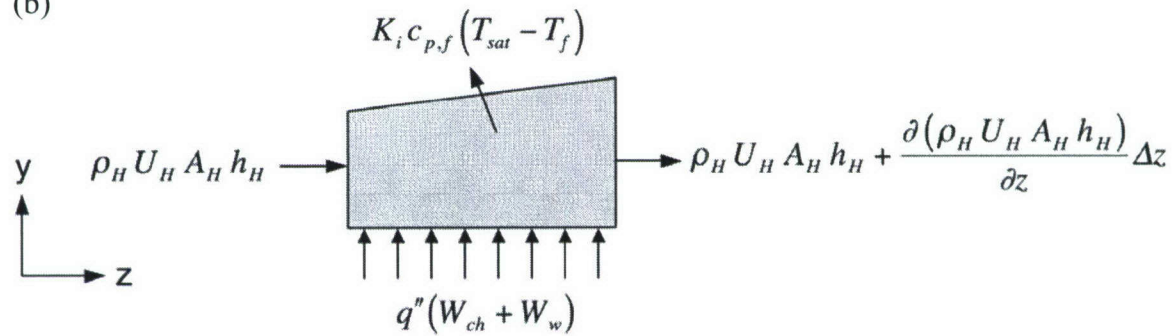
Equations (II.5.1), (II.5.2), (II.5.3), and (II.5.6) are main governing equation for *DHLM*.

(a)



Mass Conservation

(b)



Energy Conservation

Figure II.5.2 (a) Mass conservation for liquid and homogeneous layer control volumes.

(b) Energy conservation for homogenous layer control volume.

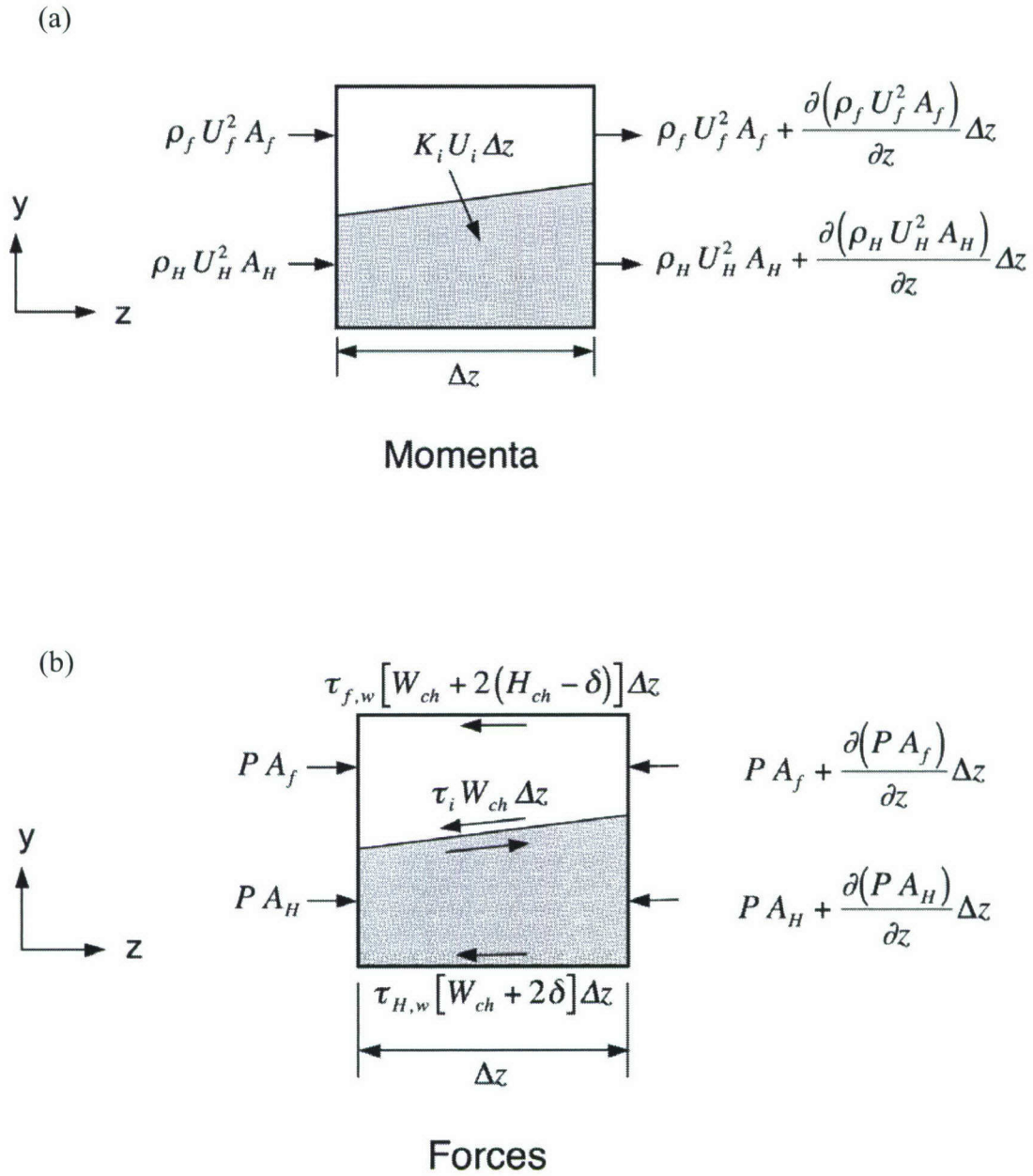


Figure II.5.3 (a) Momenta and (b) forces for liquid and homogeneous layer control volumes.

II.5.1.3 Solution Scheme

Referring to Fig. II.5.1(b) the flow areas for the liquid layer and the homogeneous layer can be expressed, respectively, as

$$A_f = W_{ch} (H_{ch} - \delta) \quad (\text{II.5.7})$$

and
$$A_H = W_{ch} \delta. \quad (\text{II.5.8})$$

Therefore, the area derivatives with respect to z can be expressed as

$$\frac{dA_f}{dz} = -W_{ch} \frac{d\delta}{dz} \quad (\text{II.5.9})$$

and
$$\frac{dA_H}{dz} = W_{ch} \frac{d\delta}{dz}. \quad (\text{II.5.10})$$

Based on the assumptions of *DHLM*, the liquid layer is assumed to preserve its velocity along the micro-channel. Therefore,

$$U_f = \frac{G}{\rho_f} \quad (\text{II.5.11})$$

and
$$\frac{dU_f}{dz} = 0. \quad (\text{II.5.12})$$

where G is mass velocity of the incoming subcooled non-boiling liquid. Since both ρ_f and U_f are constant along the flow direction, Eq. (II.5.1) yields

$$K_i = -\rho_f U_f \frac{dA_f}{dz}. \quad (\text{II.5.13})$$

Introducing the above relation in Eq. (II.5.9) gives

$$K_i = \rho_f U_f W_{ch} \frac{d\delta}{dz}. \quad (\text{II.5.14})$$

Combining Eq. (II.5.14) with Eqs. (II.5.2), (II.5.8) and (II.5.10) gives

$$\frac{d\delta}{dz} = \frac{\delta \frac{dG_H}{dz}}{(\rho_f U_f - G_H)}. \quad (\text{II.5.15})$$

One of the key parameters in *DHLM* is the enthalpy, h_H , of the homogeneous two-phase layer. Because vapor is generated in along the micro-channel in a subcooled boiling region, thermodynamic equilibrium quality cannot be used to determine the enthalpy of the two-phase layer. Therefore, the enthalpy of this layer is defined as

$$h_H = h_f + x'_H h_{fg}, \quad (\text{II.5.16})$$

where x'_H is an *apparent* flow quality. Two different formulations have been recommended for apparent quality in subcooled boiling. Levy's (1967) formulation was attempted but produced unrealistic predictions for micro-channel flow. A second formulation by Kroeger and Zuber (1968) is used here.

$$x'_H(z) = \frac{c_{p,f} \Delta T_{sub,in} (Z^+ - T^*)}{h_{fg} - c_{p,f} \Delta T_{sub,in} (1 - T^*)}, \quad (\text{II.5.17})$$

where

$$Z^+ = \frac{z - z_{bd}}{z_{sat} - z_{bd}} \quad (\text{II.5.18})$$

and

$$T^* = \tanh(Z^+). \quad (\text{II.5.19})$$

Now the apparent quality in homogeneous layer is set and two-phase flow apparent quality can be predetermined over whole test section domain without calculation of other governing equation variables. Quality gradient is also required later, but it can be easily obtained since all quality values are set by equation (II.5.17).

Combining Eqs. (II.5.10), (II.5.14) to (II.5.16) and (II.5.17) with energy conservation Eq. (II.5.3) yields

$$\frac{dG_H}{dz} = \frac{(\rho_f U_f - G_H) \left\{ q''(W_{ch} + W_w) - W_{ch} \delta G_H h_{fg} \frac{dx'_H}{dz} \right\}}{G W_{ch} \delta \left[h_H + c_{p,f} (T_{sat} - T_f) \right]}. \quad (II.5.20)$$

Another equation for homogeneous layer thickness δ can be determined by substituting Eq. (II.5.20) into (II.5.15).

$$\frac{d\delta}{dz} = \frac{q''(W_{ch} + W_w) - W_{ch} \delta G_H h_{fg} \frac{dx'_H}{dz}}{G W_{ch} \left[h_H + c_{p,f} (T_{sat} - T_f) \right]}. \quad (II.5.21)$$

Equations (II.5.20) and (II.5.21) are coupled ordinary differential equations. Referring to Fig. II.5.1(a), these equations must satisfy the conditions

$$\delta = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{at } z = -z_{bd} \\ H_{ch} & \text{at } z = z_{sat} \end{cases} \quad (II.5.22)$$

and

$$G_H = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{at } z = -z_{bd} \\ G & \text{at } z = z_{sat} \end{cases}. \quad (5.23)$$

To meet those boundary conditions, the homogeneous two-phase layer is assumed to evolve from zero thickness at an *equivalent* distance $-z_{bd}$ associated with preheating the flow at the same heat flux supplied at the micro-channel. The homogeneous layer is also assumed to engulf the entire cross-section at another equivalent distance z_{sat} extending beyond the micro-channel exit and where the flow is subjected to the same heat flux supplied at the micro-channel.

Finally, Eqs. (II.5.9) and (II.5.10) are used along with $U_H = G_H/\rho_H$ to simplify momentum equation (II.5.6) to the following explicit form:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dP}{dz} = & -\frac{1}{W_{ch} H_{ch}} \left[-\rho_f U_f^2 W_{ch} \frac{d\delta}{dz} + \rho_H U_H^2 W_{ch} \frac{d\delta}{dz} + 2\rho_H U_H W_{ch} H_{ch} \frac{dU_H}{dz} + U_H^2 W_{ch} H_{ch} \frac{d\rho_H}{dz} \right. \\ & \left. + \left\{ \tau_{f,w} [W_{ch} + 2(H_{ch} - \delta)] + \tau_{H,w} [W_{ch} + 2\delta] \right\} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (II.5.24)$$

Notice that solution of Eqs. (II.5.20) and (II.5.21) is not dependent on Eq. (II.5.24). Therefore Eqs. (II.5.20) and (II.5.21) can be solved first for δ and G_H . Then the variations of δ , U_H , $d\delta/dz$ and dU_H/dz with z are substituted in Eq. (II.5.24) to solve separately for pressure drop. Two-phase density and its derivative are predetermined from the apparent quality calculations.

Several additional parameters are required to solve Eqs. (II.5.20), (II.5.21) and (II.5.24). They include mixture density and mixture viscosity of the homogeneous two-phase layer, and friction factor relations for the liquid layer and the homogeneous layer are specifically related to rectangular micro-channels. These relations are summarized in Table II.5.1. A more comprehensive discussion of homogeneous flow viscosity models is provided in a previous study by Lee and Mudawar (2005a).

There are also other parameters that define the domain of the subcooled boiling region. These parameters must be determined in advance. Referring to Fig. II.5.1(a), the location of saturated boiling, which is also the downstream edge of *DHLM* domain, can be determined using a simple heat balance.

$$z_{sat} = \frac{GW_{ch} H_{ch} c_{p,f} (T_{sat} - T_{in})}{q'' (W_{ch} + W_w)}. \quad (II.5.40)$$

A key difficulty lies in the determination of z_{bd} . Two approaches are available from the literature for estimating the location of bubble departure. Both involve estimating flow subcooling, $\Delta T_{sub,bd}$, at the departure point, from z_{db} is calculated from the simple energy balance

$$-z_{bd} = z_{sat} - \frac{\Delta T_{sub,bd}}{q''} \frac{GW_{ch} H_{ch} c_{p,f}}{(W_{ch} + W_w)}. \quad (II.5.41)$$

Relations recommended by Bowring (Collier and Thome, 1994) and Saha and Zuber (1974) for $\Delta T_{sub,bd}$ for macro-channels produced poor predictions for the conditions of the present study. The bubble departure point was predicted with both relations to occur in the micro-channel at much higher heat fluxes than actually measured.

An alternative relation for $\Delta T_{sub,bd}$ is suggested here that follows the same general form as the Saha and Zuber model, but ensures the occurrence of bubble departure within the micro-channel as captured experimentally in prior flow visualization studies.

$$\Delta T_{sub,bd} = \frac{q'' C_G}{h_{bd}}, \quad (\text{II.5.42})$$

where h_{bd} is the heat transfer coefficient measured when bubble departure was first observed *inside* the micro-channel, and C_G is a dimensionless function developed specifically for rectangular micro-channels and correlated to aspect ratio, β , from data for the four different test sections used in the present study.

$$C_G = 0.632\beta + 0.014. \quad (\text{II.5.43})$$

A key challenge is using Eqs. (II.5.42) and (II.5.43) is that the value of h_{bd} used to develop these correlations was measured experimentally for a condition that produced bubble departure inside the micro-channel. However, as illustrated in Fig. II.5.1(a), the value of h_{bd} sought in the *DHLM* is that of a pseudo heat transfer coefficient that yields bubble departure upstream of the micro-channel. This value was determined with an iterative procedure described next.

Figure II.5.4 outlines the entire solution procedure for *DHLM*. The model is initiated by guessing micro-channel inlet pressure, P_{in} at $z = 0$, then h_{bd} . Different values of h_{bd} produced different variations of δ with z . The value of h_{bd} was updated until the model yielded $\delta = H$ at $z = z_{sat}$. Then the model used this last value of h_{bd} to determine the variation of P with z . Since the present experiments were performed with a fixed outlet plenum pressure ($P_{out} = 1.138$ bar), the predicted micro-channel exit pressure, P_L at $z = L$, was corrected for pressure recovery due to expansion from the micro-channels to the outlet plenum in order to determine P_{out} . If this value of P_{out} matched the measured pressure, the solution was deemed convergent. If, on the other hand, the pressure values did not agree, a new value of P_{in} was entered and the entire iteration repeated. Overall, pressure differences due to recovery were quite small and

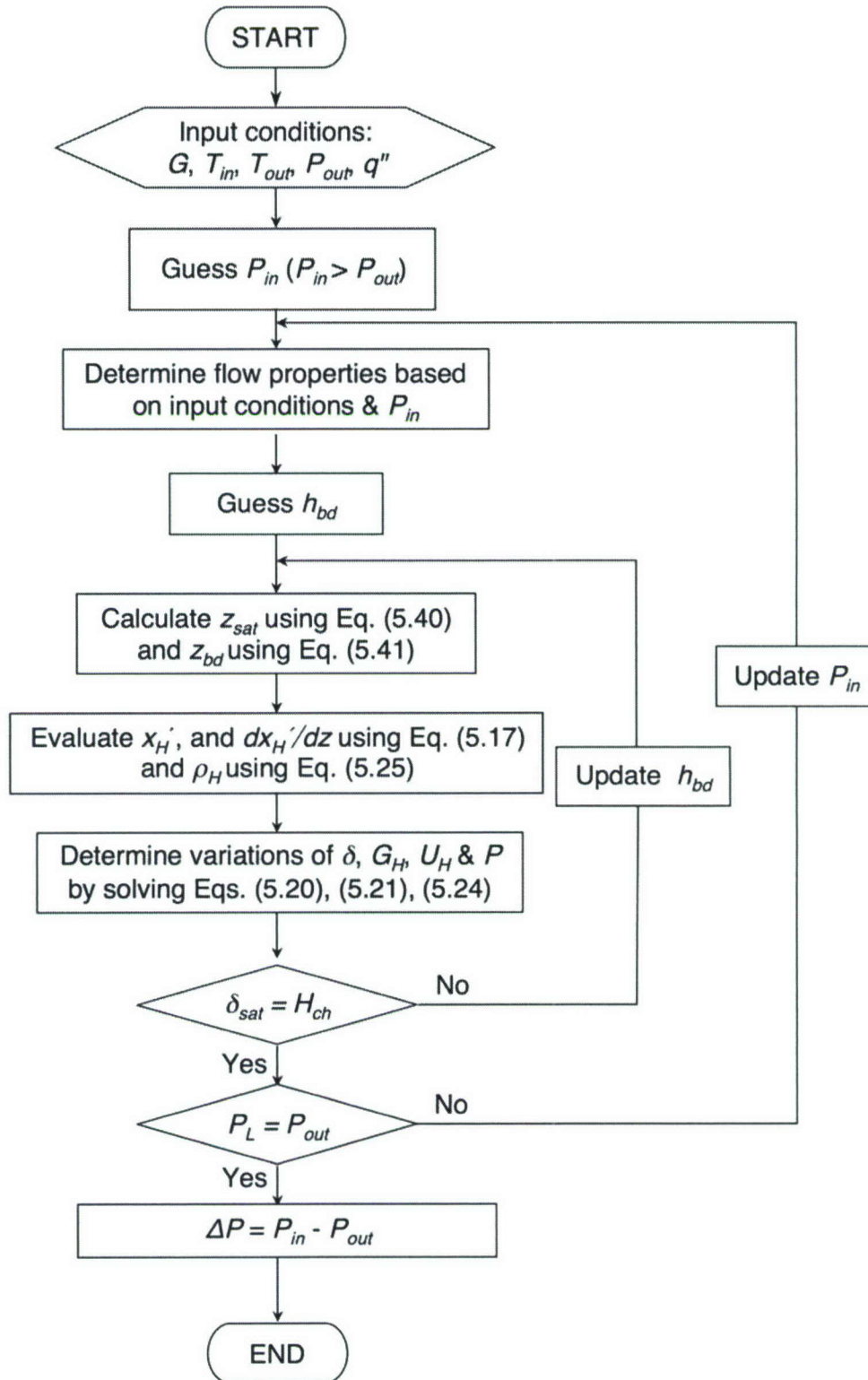
had virtually no impact on the pressure drop calculation. Details concerning two-phase pressure recovery relations are available in a paper by Qu and Mudawar (2003a).

Table II.5.1 Additional relations of *DHLM*.

	Equations
Two-phase density	$\rho_H = \frac{1}{\frac{x'}{\rho_g} + \frac{1-x'}{\rho_f}} \quad (\text{II.5.25})$
Two-phase viscosity (McAdams model)	$\mu_H = \frac{1}{\frac{x'}{\mu_g} + \frac{1-x'}{\mu_f}} \quad (\text{II.5.26})$
Liquid layer wall shear (Shah and London, 1978)	$\tau_{f,w} = \frac{1}{2} f_f \rho_f U_f^2 \quad (\text{II.5.27})$
	$f_f Re_f = \left\{ 3.44 z_{hy}^{+0.5} + \frac{1.089/4 z_{hy}^+ + K_f - 3.44/z_{hy}^{+0.5}}{1 + 0.000131 z_{hy}^{+2}} \right\} \quad (\text{II.5.28})$
	$Re_f = \frac{\rho_f U_f D_{h,f}}{\mu_f} \quad (\text{II.5.29})$
	$D_{h,f} = \frac{2(H_{ch} - \delta)W_{ch}}{(H_{ch} - \delta) + W_{ch}} \quad (\text{II.5.30})$
	$z_{hy}^+ = \frac{z}{D_h Re_f} \quad (\text{II.5.31})$
	$K_f = 24(1 - 1.355\beta_f + 1.947\beta_f^2 - 1.701\beta_f^3 + 0.956\beta_f^4 - 0.254\beta_f^5) \quad (\text{II.5.32})$
	$\beta_f = \frac{W_{ch}}{(H_{ch} - \delta)} \text{ or } \frac{(H_{ch} - \delta)}{W_{ch}} ; \beta_f \leq 1 \quad (\text{II.5.33})$

Table II.5.1 Continued.

	Equations
Homogeneous layer wall shear	$\tau_{H,w} = \frac{1}{2} f_H \rho_H U_H^2 \quad (\text{II.5.34})$
	$f_H = \frac{K_H}{\text{Re}_H} \quad (\text{II.5.35})$
	$\text{Re}_H = \frac{\rho_H U_H D_{h,H}}{\mu_H} \quad (\text{II.5.36})$
	$D_{h,H} = \frac{2\delta W_{ch}}{\delta + W_{ch}} \quad (\text{II.5.37})$
	$K_H = 24 \left(1 - 1.355\beta_H + 1.947\beta_H^2 - 1.701\beta_H^3 + 0.956\beta_H^4 - 0.254\beta_H^5 \right) \quad (\text{II.5.38})$
	$\beta_H = \frac{W_{ch}}{\delta} \text{ or } \frac{\delta}{W_{ch}} ; \beta_H \leq 1 \quad (\text{II.5.39})$

Figure II.5.4 Solving procedure for *DHLM*.

II.5.2 Model Results

II.5.2.1 Profiles of Main Variables

Figure II.5.5 shows predictions of the axial variations of the *DHLM* main variables: velocity of homogenous two-phase layer, U_H , thickness of homogeneous layer, δ , and pressure, P , for each of the four test sections. Notice that the profiles include the pseudo upstream and downstream extensions of the subcooled boiling layer; the extent of the actual micro-channel is indicated for each case. The results are based on experimentally measured heat flux, which varies slightly between the four cases. Because of the relatively high heat flux, these conditions correspond to the upper range of the nucleate boiling region, which indicated by the micro-channel length corresponding to the relatively high void fraction region of the model domain.

Pressure drop across the micro-channel is the difference between P_{in} predicted by *DHLM* at $z = 0$ minus the measured outlet pressure, P_{out} , corrected for pressure recovery. Equation (II.5.24) shows pressure drop is inversely proportional to micro-channel cross sectional area and strongly influenced by U_H . Figure II.5.5 shows decreasing hydraulic diameter, which yields a substantial increase in U_H , increases pressure drop.

II.5.2.2 Validation of Model Predictions

Figure II.5.6 compares pressure drop predictions of *DHLM* with measured pressure drop for the four test sections, two different flow rates and two inlet temperatures. Most cases are predicted quite accurately with the exception of the largest hydraulic diameter at the higher inlet temperature. This shows the model is well suited to small rectangular micro-channels and may begin to lose accuracy with large micro-channels. The model's accuracy is apparently compromised when the homogenous two-phase layer assumption begins to fall apart as the two-phase layer undergoes transition from bubbly to slug flow at higher inlet temperatures (*i.e.*, lower subcoolings), especially

at high heat fluxes. It should be noted that *DHLM* provided excellent predictions of pressure drop for all three smaller hydraulic diameters, and its predictive accuracy increased at low heat fluxes. Relatively poor predictions for the largest hydraulic diameter may be related to strong entrance effects, especially at high Reynolds numbers, causing the assumption of constant mean liquid layer velocity in the model to be violated. Another reason for the deviation, which is mainly encountered at high fluxes, concerns both the aforementioned transition from bubbly to slug flow, and the flow instabilities (even flow reversal) at conditions approaching CHF as described in the chapter II.3.

Figure II.5.7 compares the model predictions with the entire pressure drop database of this study. Excepting the large diameter data corresponding to the higher inlet temperature, good predictions are achieved for most of the 191 data points, evidenced by a mean absolute error (MAE) of 14.9%.

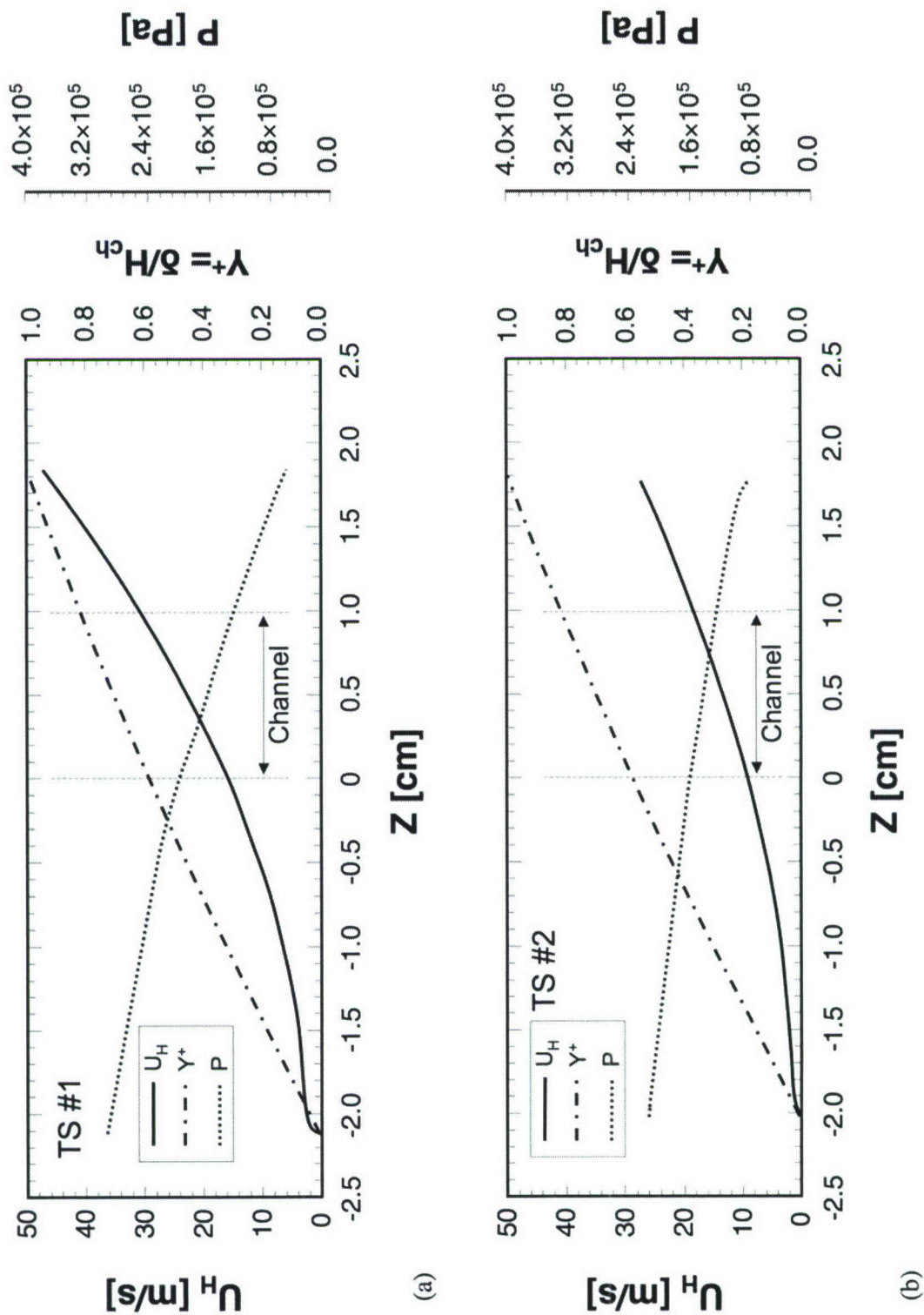


Figure II.5.5 (DHLM predictions for $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $m = 5\text{ g/s}$ for (a) TS #1 ($D_h = 176\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) at $q'' = 561\text{ W/cm}^2$, (b) TS #2 ($D_h = 200\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) at $q'' = 586\text{ W/cm}^2$, (c) TS #3 ($D_h = 334\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) at $q'' = 560\text{ W/cm}^2$, and (d) TS #4 ($D_h = 416\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) at $q'' = 627\text{ W/cm}^2$.

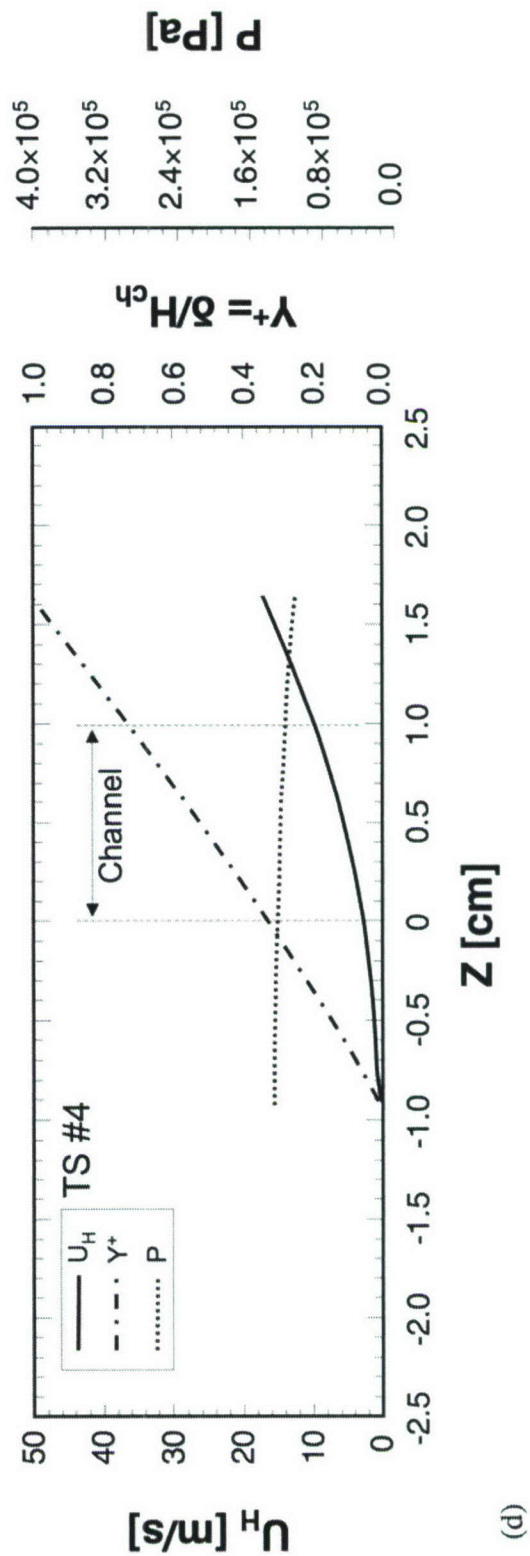
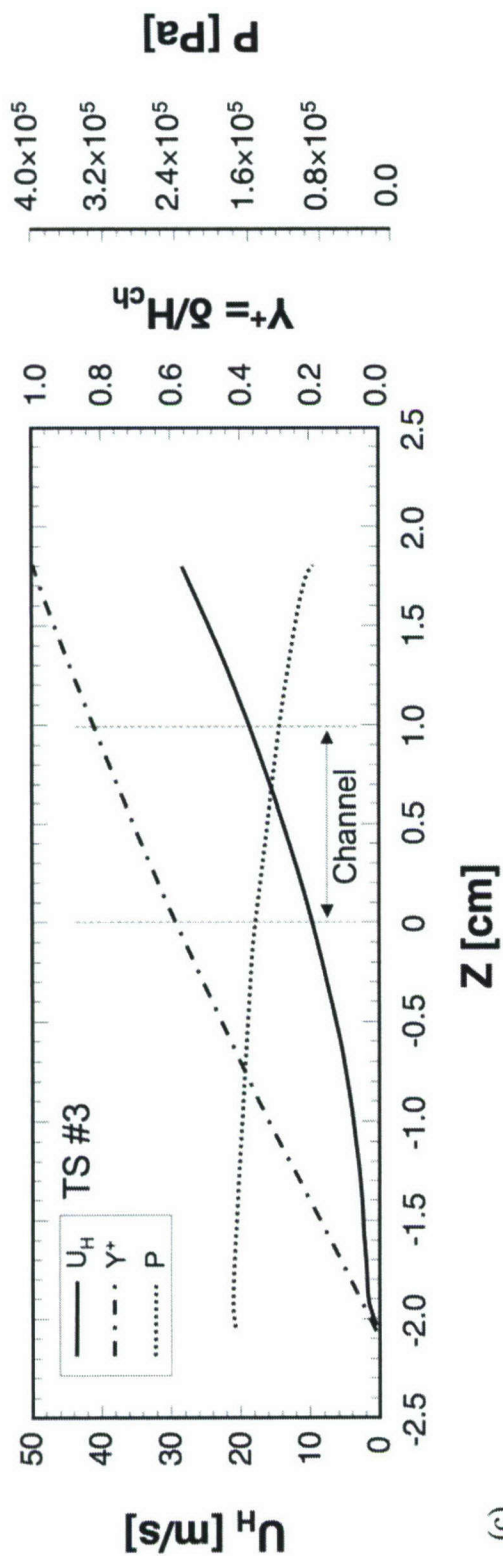


Figure II.5.5 Continued.

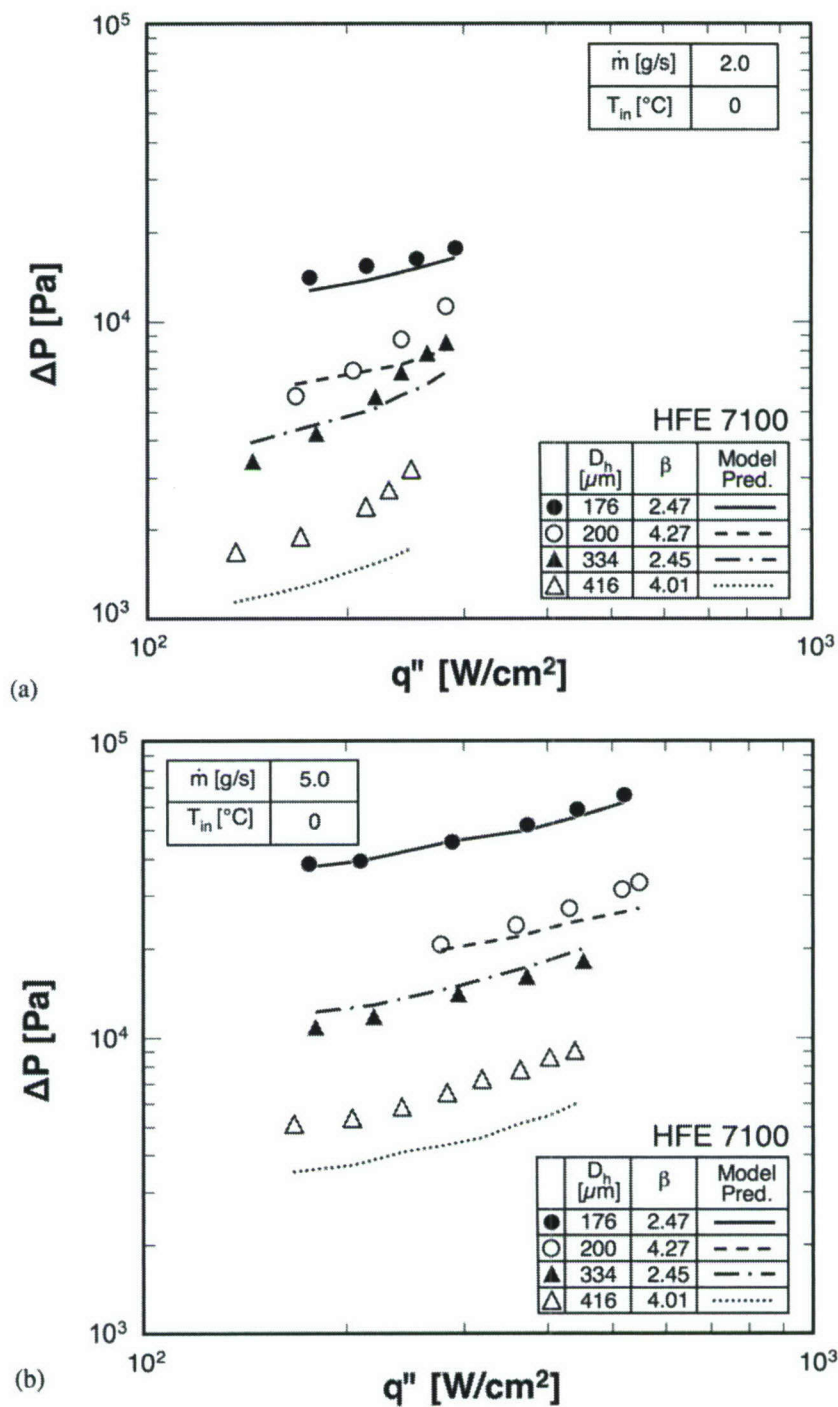


Figure II.5.6 Comparison of model predictions and measured variation of pressure drop with heat flux for (a) $T_{in} = 0$ °C and $\dot{m} = 2$ g/s, (b) $T_{in} = 0$ °C and $\dot{m} = 5$ g/s, (c) $T_{in} = -30$ °C and $\dot{m} = 2$ g/s, and (d) $T_{in} = -30$ °C and $\dot{m} = 5$ kg/s.

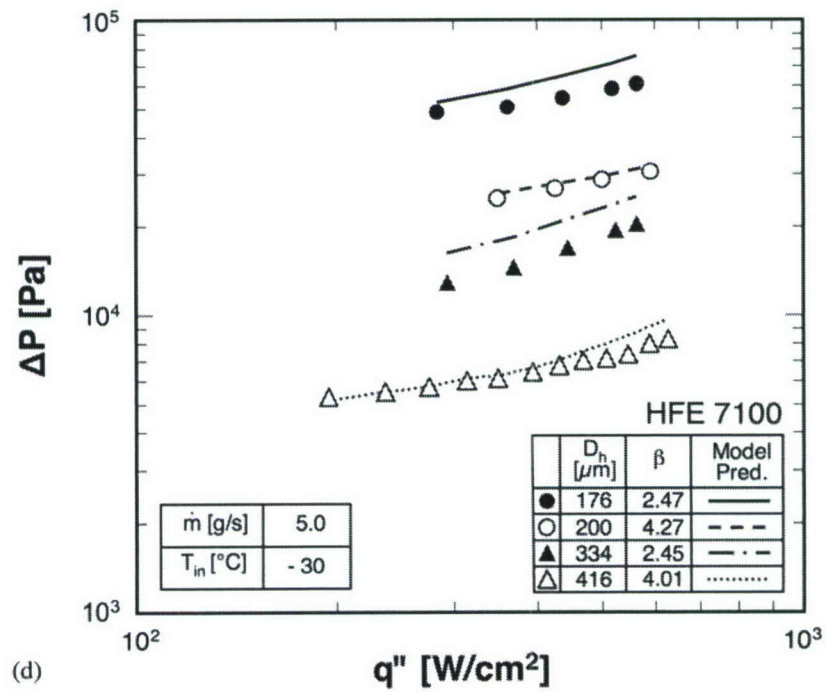
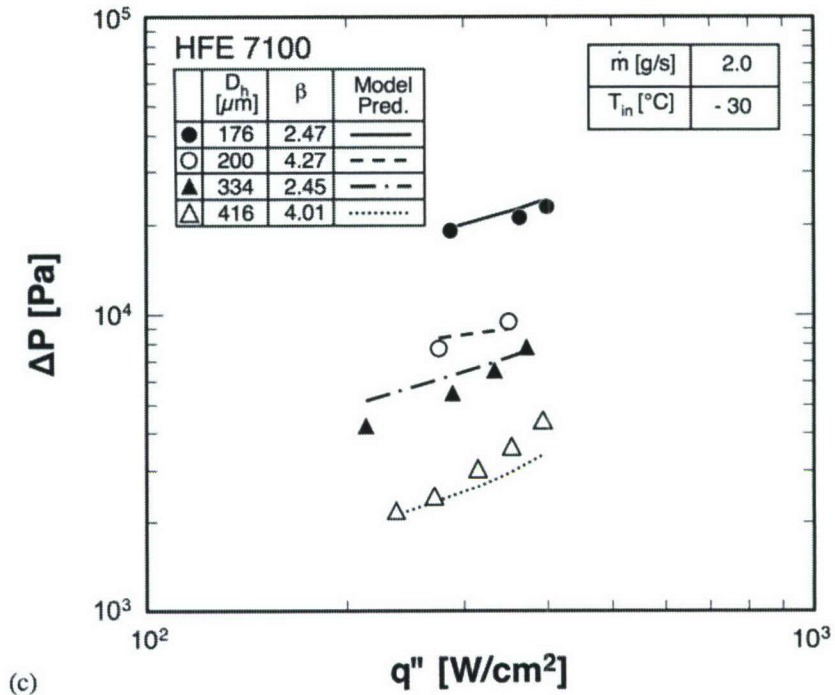


Figure II.5.6 Continued.

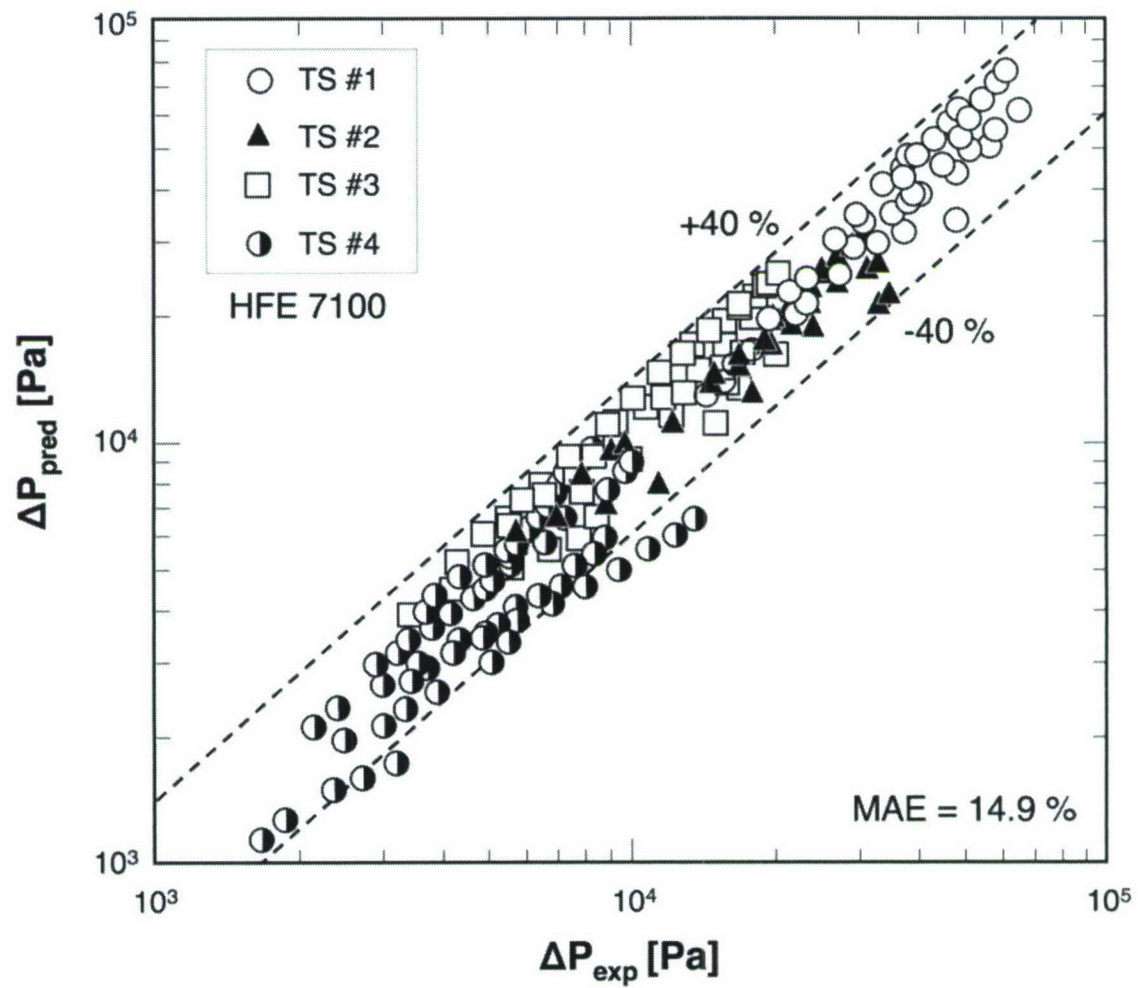


Figure II.5.7 Comparison of pressure drop predictions of *DHLM* and experimental data.

II.6 CRITICAL HEAT FLUX FOR SUBCOOLED FLOW BOILING

II.6.1 CHF Trend and Flow Visualization Results

Several key parameters were used to characterize flow conditions and CHF. Aside from total flow rate, \dot{m} , of the primary coolant, tests were also based on mass velocity, which is defined as

$$G = \frac{\dot{m}}{N A_{ch}}, \quad (\text{II.6.1})$$

where N is the number of micro-channels in the heat sink, and A_{ch} the cross-sectional area of each micro-channel. Two definitions are used for heat flux as shown in Fig. II.6.1. The first is the effective heat flux, q_{eff}'' , which is based on the total base area of the micro-channel heat sink. This would be equivalent to the heat flux dissipated from an electronic device to which the micro-channel heat sink is attached. The second, q_p'' , is the average heat flux along the three thermally conducting walls of the rectangular micro-channel. This latter definition is used to compare present CHF values to those determined from prior CHF correlations, which are typically derived from databases for uniformly heated channels. As illustrated in Fig. II.6.1, q_p'' is related to q_{eff}'' by the relation

$$q_p'' = \frac{q_{eff}'' (W_{ch} + W_w)}{(W_{ch} + 2H_{ch})}. \quad (\text{II.6.2})$$

Figure II.6.2 shows representative flow boiling curves for two different micro-channel test sections and two mass flow rates. The micro-channel's mean base temperature, \bar{T}_w , halfway along the micro-channel was determined with a simple fin

model and the assumption of 1-D conduction using the unit cell shown in Fig. II.6.1. Details of the procedure used to determine \bar{T}_w was mentioned in earlier chapter. Figure II.6.2 shows increasing the flow rate increases CHF for both test sections. Furthermore, the micro-channel with the smaller hydraulic diameter yields higher CHF values. This can be explained by the smaller micro-channel's greater mass velocity for the same mass flow rate as the larger micro-channel. However, this trend is by no means conclusive or monotonic. For example, comparing the data in Fig. II.6.2 for TS#3 at $G = 1,341 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ with data for TS#4 at $G = 1,007 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ shows the smaller G yielding a higher CHF value. A more effective way to assess the influence of G on CHF is to use q_p'' rather than q_{eff}'' . For the $G = 1,341 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ case, $q_{eff}'' = 325.8 \text{ W/cm}^2$ but $q_p'' = 109.2 \text{ W/cm}^2$, whereas $q_{eff}'' = 417.0 \text{ W/cm}^2$ and $q_p'' = 82.8 \text{ W/cm}^2$ for the $G = 1,007 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ case. This shows using q_p'' does yield the expected trend of increasing CHF with increasing G and is therefore a more effective parameter for correlating micro-channel CHF data. Unfortunately, further verification of the benefits of smaller micro-channels was not possible for all micro-channel sizes, given the lack of CHF data for test sections TS#1 and TS#2. However, prior flow visualization has shown very small diameters promote early transition from bubbly to slug flow, especially in narrow channels. A large increase in void fraction may compromise the magnitude of CHF.

Figure II.6.2 shows two different types of CHF, three are indicated as 'normal CHF' and one as 'pre-mature CHF' or PM-CHF. Differences between these CHF types can be best explained with the aid of images obtained with high-speed video.

Figure II.6.3 shows the typical occurrence of 'normal CHF.' Prior to CHF, there is significant near-wall bubble activity, with an abundance of liquid in the core. At CHF, bubbles suddenly coalesce into a continuous vapor blanket, thermally insulating the micro-channel walls from liquid contact. This behavior is consistent with the definition of DNB (see Fig. II.1.3), and is manifest by a sudden sharp rise in the micro-channel's base temperature.

As discussed earlier, fig. II.3.8 shows a series of images of the flow during pre-mature CHF. High void fraction appears to momentarily increase pressure drop,

preventing liquid from entering the micro-channels. This forces vapor backwards towards the inlet plenum. Vapor begins to accumulate in the inlet plenum as liquid inside the micro-channels is evaporated, causing wall temperature to rise. During the vapor back flow, pressure in the inlet plenum begins to rise until it is capable of resisting the vapor back flow. Fresh liquid is then reintroduced into the micro-channels, rewetting the micro-channel walls and decreasing the wall temperature as the inlet temperature also decreases. This cycle is repeated several times, with the mean wall temperature increasing between cycles. Eventually, the wall temperature begins to rise more rapidly, signaling the commencement of PM-CHF. Figure II.6.4 shows transient records of the downstream wall thermocouple, the inlet and outlet pressure transducers and the Coriolis flow meter before and during PM-CHF. Notice the large increase in the amplitude of the temperature and pressure signals as well as the increase in mean wall temperature during PM-CHF. Overall, PM-CHF occurs at low mass velocities and low subcoolings. High mass velocities preclude the occurrence of PM-CHF by providing sufficiently large momentum to resist the vapor back flow. High subcooling serves to decrease vapor void fraction through stronger condensation, which greatly reduces the vapor blockage.

Figure II.6.5 shows the variation of CHF, based on heated perimeter, with inlet subcooling and mass velocity for test sections TS#3 and TS#4, including PM-CHF data. Overall, CHF increases monotonically with increases in inlet subcooling and/or mass velocity. Notice that PM-CHF is encountered mostly at low mass velocities and/or low subcoolings. Special attention is given in this study to distinguishing between normal and PM-CHF data when assessing prior correlations. Table II.6.1 provides all the CHF data measured in the present study. The database consists of 45 data points of which 13 are PM-CHF.

Table II.6.1 Present CHF data.

No.	D_h [μm]	L/D_h	G [kg/m ² .s]	T_{in} [°C]	T_o [°C]	$\Delta T_{sub,in}$ [°C]	$\Delta T_{sub,o}$ [°C]	P_{in} [bar]	P_o [bar]	x_{in}	x_o	$q''_{eff,c}$ [W/cm ²]	$q''_{p,c}$ [W/cm ²]	Notes
1	175.7	56.9	2213.9	0.04	43.82	68.28	19.75	1.3135	1.1339	-0.652	-0.206	301.1	85.3	PM-CHF
2	175.7	56.9	2215.9	-23.60	49.88	95.92	13.88	1.4810	1.1408	-0.888	-0.145	513.8	145.5	
3	200.0	50.0	1276.7	-0.13	42.99	67.46	20.72	1.2742	1.1388	-0.656	-0.216	311.4	55.0	PM-CHF
4	200.0	50.0	1282.1	-22.79	30.34	90.69	33.50	1.2968	1.1435	-0.881	-0.348	435.0	76.8	
5	200.0	50.0	1924.2	-0.30	38.16	69.2	25.66	1.3369	1.1429	-0.659	-0.268	403.5	71.3	PM-CHF
6	334.1	29.9	1338.1	19.62	50.84	46.7	13.04	1.2352	1.1451	-0.459	-0.137	210.9	70.7	PM-CHF
7	334.1	29.9	1338.3	10.14	47.29	56.12	16.45	1.2331	1.1399	-0.553	-0.172	265.6	89.0	PM-CHF
8	334.1	29.9	1341.2	-0.42	49.64	67.21	14.43	1.2534	1.1520	-0.663	-0.151	325.8	109.2	
9	334.1	29.9	1338.2	-10.46	45.15	77.5	18.51	1.2630	1.1373	-0.758	-0.193	399.6	133.9	
10	334.1	29.9	1341.1	-24.92	34.77	91.95	29.02	1.2628	1.1418	-0.901	-0.302	459.1	153.9	
11	334.1	29.9	1672.8	19.30	59.13	49.98	4.94	1.3522	1.1519	-0.464	-0.052	340.6	114.1	
12	334.1	29.9	1673.8	10.02	52.97	58.41	10.82	1.3179	1.1419	-0.555	-0.113	366.0	122.7	
13	334.1	29.9	1673.5	-0.61	47.51	68.96	16.46	1.3145	1.1484	-0.664	-0.172	423.1	141.8	
14	334.1	29.9	1673.5	-10.04	40.42	77.89	23.32	1.2949	1.1402	-0.755	-0.243	441.8	148.1	
15	334.1	29.9	1673.6	-29.66	26.61	97.59	37.18	1.2981	1.1419	-0.947	-0.386	534.4	179.1	
16	334.1	29.9	2009.9	19.29	57.83	51.29	5.96	1.4062	1.1417	-0.461	-0.062	381.7	127.9	
17	334.1	29.9	2006.4	9.73	52.71	59.96	10.99	1.3692	1.1387	-0.557	-0.115	417.7	140.0	
18	334.1	29.9	2013.3	-0.46	43.48	68.7	20.34	1.3102	1.1429	-0.660	-0.212	442.0	148.1	
19	334.1	29.9	2008.5	-9.42	37.56	77.9	26.03	1.3198	1.1345	-0.746	-0.271	479.2	160.6	
20	334.1	29.9	2017.1	-28.77	25.41	96.78	38.39	1.3010	1.1421	-0.938	-0.399	592.3	198.5	
21	334.1	29.9	2345.1	19.39	56.04	52.14	7.68	1.4464	1.1393	-0.459	-0.080	414.4	138.9	
22	334.1	29.9	2344.9	10.20	47.73	60.68	15.95	1.4187	1.1379	-0.552	-0.167	439.6	147.3	
23	334.1	29.9	2345.1	-1.17	42.15	71.32	21.51	1.3880	1.1373	-0.666	-0.225	500.0	167.6	
24	334.1	29.9	2345.5	-10.67	37.02	80.17	26.66	1.3611	1.1379	-0.760	-0.278	555.2	186.1	

Table II.6.1 Continued.

No.	D_h [μm]	L/D_h	G [$\text{kg}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_o [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	$\Delta T_{sub,in}$ [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	$\Delta T_{sub,o}$ [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [bar]	P_o [bar]	x_{in}	x_o	$q''_{eff,c}$ [W/cm^2]	$q''_{p,c}$ [W/cm^2]	Note
25	415.9	24.0	670.5	19.41	45.96	45.2	17.88	1.1716	1.1437	-0.460	-0.187	183.1	36.3	PM-CHF
26	415.9	24.0	670.5	9.75	43.27	54.74	20.39	1.1671	1.1370	-0.556	-0.213	219.0	43.5	PM-CHF
27	415.9	24.0	671.9	-0.07	40.88	64.68	22.84	1.1714	1.1393	-0.655	-0.238	257.1	51.0	PM-CHF
28	415.9	24.0	670.2	-9.62	35.07	74.24	28.59	1.1718	1.1373	-0.749	-0.298	312.2	62.0	PM-CHF
29	415.9	24.0	671.0	-28.48	36.28	93.89	27.67	1.2010	1.1477	-0.937	-0.289	445.7	88.5	
30	415.9	24.0	838.7	19.30	50.52	46.03	13.25	1.1982	1.1412	-0.461	-0.139	253.8	50.4	PM-CHF
31	415.9	24.0	838.6	9.36	42.61	55.7	21.18	1.1881	1.1417	-0.561	-0.221	274.7	54.5	PM-CHF
32	415.9	24.0	838.8	-0.04	37.92	65.17	25.85	1.1908	1.1410	-0.656	-0.269	313.2	62.1	PM-CHF
33	415.9	24.0	838.7	-10.08	33.69	75.17	29.94	1.1892	1.1362	-0.754	-0.312	372.3	73.9	PM-CHF
34	415.9	24.0	838.7	-27.84	35.45	93.44	28.29	1.2081	1.1401	-0.928	-0.295	556.3	110.4	
35	415.9	24.0	1007.0	18.96	57.37	47.63	6.57	1.2457	1.1471	-0.466	-0.069	352.3	69.9	
36	415.9	24.0	1007.0	9.27	53.78	57.17	10.11	1.2399	1.1453	-0.564	-0.106	401.9	79.8	
37	415.9	24.0	1007.0	-0.49	43.37	66.86	20.76	1.2372	1.1542	-0.665	-0.217	417.0	82.8	
38	415.9	24.0	1007.0	-10.88	38.67	76.85	24.87	1.2219	1.1330	-0.760	-0.259	477.1	94.7	
39	415.9	24.0	1009.0	-30.17	24.75	95.55	39.07	1.2001	1.1430	-0.952	-0.406	603.1	119.7	
40	415.9	24.0	1176.0	19.51	56.02	47.68	7.88	1.2690	1.1458	-0.460	-0.083	389.2	77.2	
41	415.9	24.0	1173.0	9.43	49.34	57.33	14.40	1.2524	1.1400	-0.560	-0.151	425.6	84.5	
42	415.9	24.0	1176.0	-0.28	44.16	67.1	19.64	1.2546	1.1423	-0.658	-0.205	483.9	96.0	
43	415.9	24.0	1176.0	-10.82	36.80	77.47	26.82	1.2479	1.1356	-0.761	-0.279	541.6	107.5	
44	415.9	24.0	1176.0	-31.01	31.78	97.57	31.98	1.2447	1.1407	-0.959	-0.333	693.0	137.5	
45	415.9	24.0	1346.0	0.09	47.00	67.28	16.72	1.2757	1.1395	-0.654	-0.175	571.8	113.5	

Table II.6.2 Subcooled boiling CHF correlations.

Author(s)	Remarks	Correlations
Hall & Mudawar (2000b)	Outlet-conditions based	$Bo_c = \frac{q_c''}{G h_{fg}} = C_1 We_D^{C_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g} \right)^{C_3} \left[1 - C_4 \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g} \right)^{C_5} x_o \right]$ $C_1 = 0.0722, C_2 = -0.312, C_3 = -0.644, C_4 = 0.900, C_5 = 0.724$
Hall & Mudawar (2000b)	Inlet-conditions based	$Bo_c = \frac{q_c''}{G h_{fg}} = \frac{C_1 We_D^{C_2} (\rho_f / \rho_g)^{C_3} \left[1 - C_4 (\rho_f / \rho_g)^{C_5} x_{e,in}^* \right]}{1 + 4 C_1 C_4 We_D^{C_2} (\rho_f / \rho_g)^{C_3 + C_5} (L/D)}$ $C_1 = 0.0722, C_2 = -0.312, C_3 = -0.644, C_4 = 0.900, C_5 = 0.724$
Hall & Mudawar (1999)	Outlet-conditions based; ultra-high heat flux	$Bo_c = \frac{q_c''}{G h_{fg}} = C_1 We_D^{C_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g} \right)^{C_3} \left[1 - C_4 \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g} \right)^{C_5} x_o \right]$ $C_1 = 0.0332, C_2 = -0.235, C_3 = -0.681, C_4 = 0.684, C_5 = 0.832$
Hall & Mudawar (1999)	Inlet-conditions based; ultra-high heat flux	$Bo_c = \frac{q_c''}{G h_{fg}} = \frac{C_1 We_D^{C_2} (\rho_f / \rho_g)^{C_3} \left[1 - C_4 (\rho_f / \rho_g)^{C_5} x_{e,in}^* \right]}{1 + 4 C_1 C_4 We_D^{C_2} (\rho_f / \rho_g)^{C_3 + C_5} (L/D)}$ $C_1 = 0.0332, C_2 = -0.235, C_3 = -0.681, C_4 = 0.684, C_5 = 0.832$

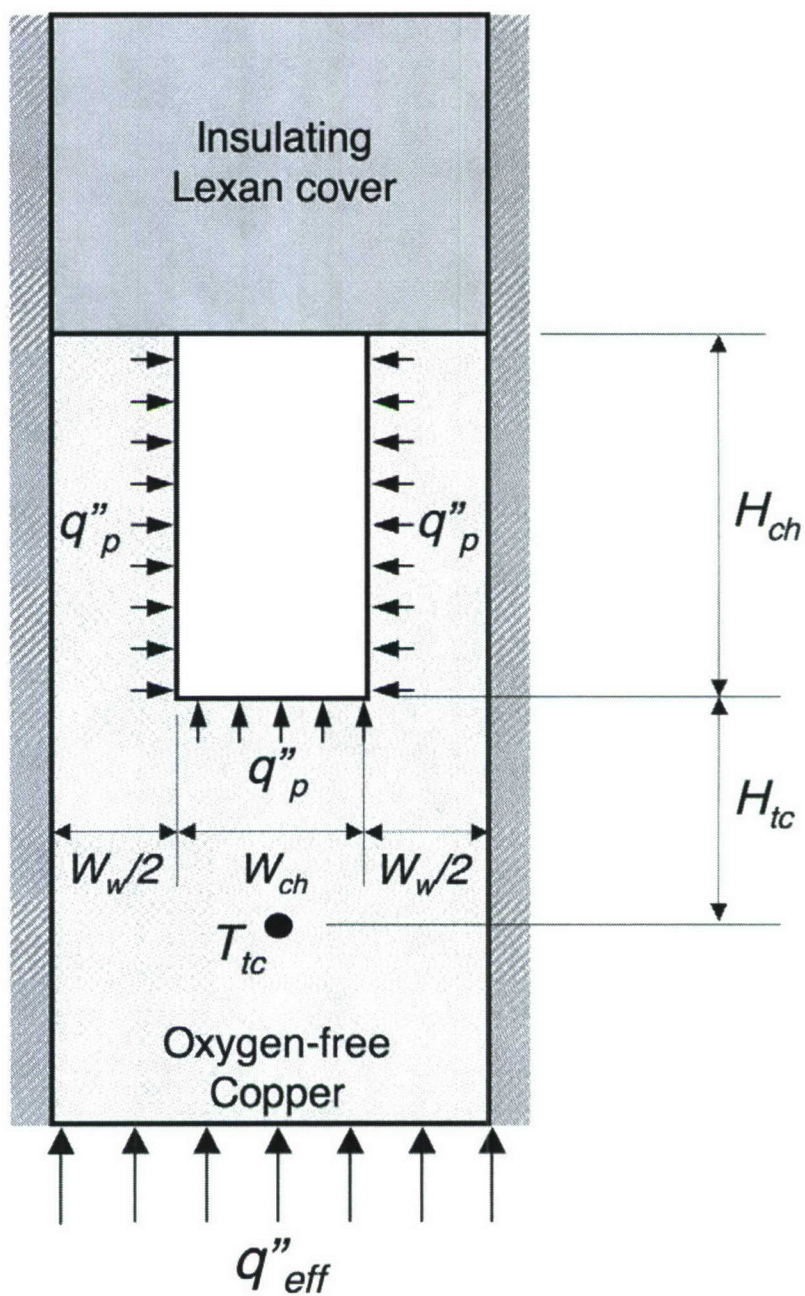


Figure II.6.1 Micro-channel unit cell.

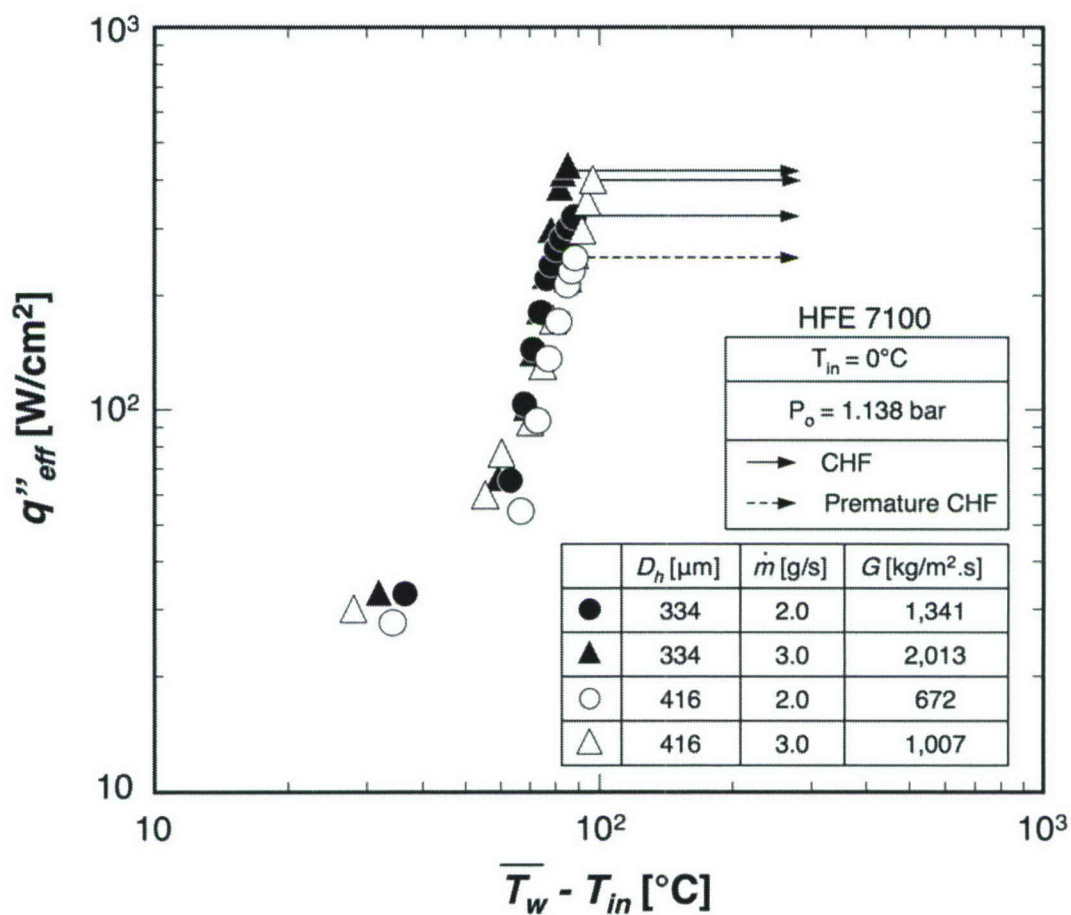


Figure II.6.2 Boiling curves for subcooled flow boiling conditions.

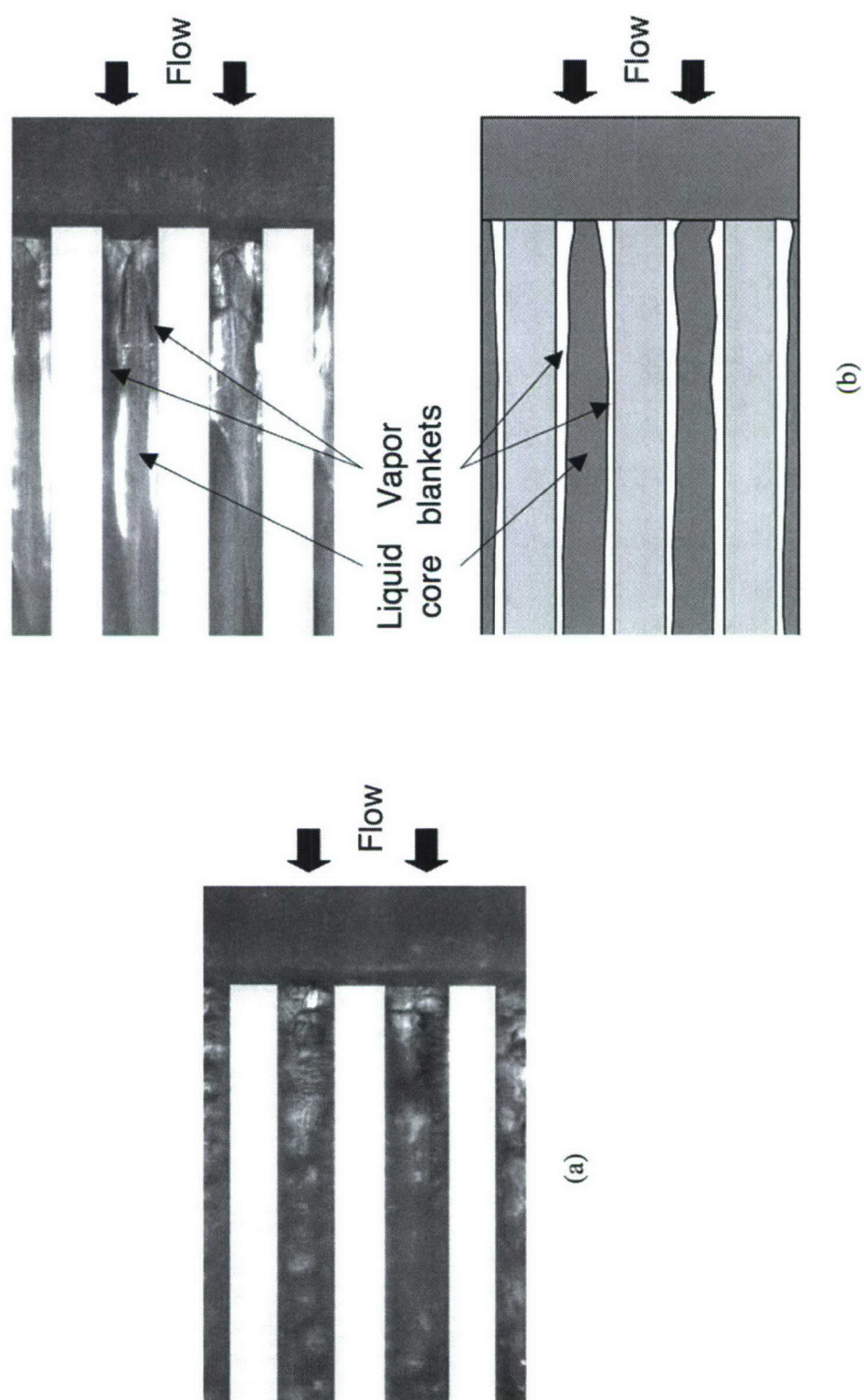


Figure II.6.3 Flow images for normal DNB with TS#3 ($D_h = 334.1 \mu\text{m}$) at $T_{in} = 0^\circ\text{C}$ and $G = 1341 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ for (a) $q''_{eff} = 318.3 \text{ W/cm}^2$, (b) $q''_{eff} > q''_{eff,c} = 325.8 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

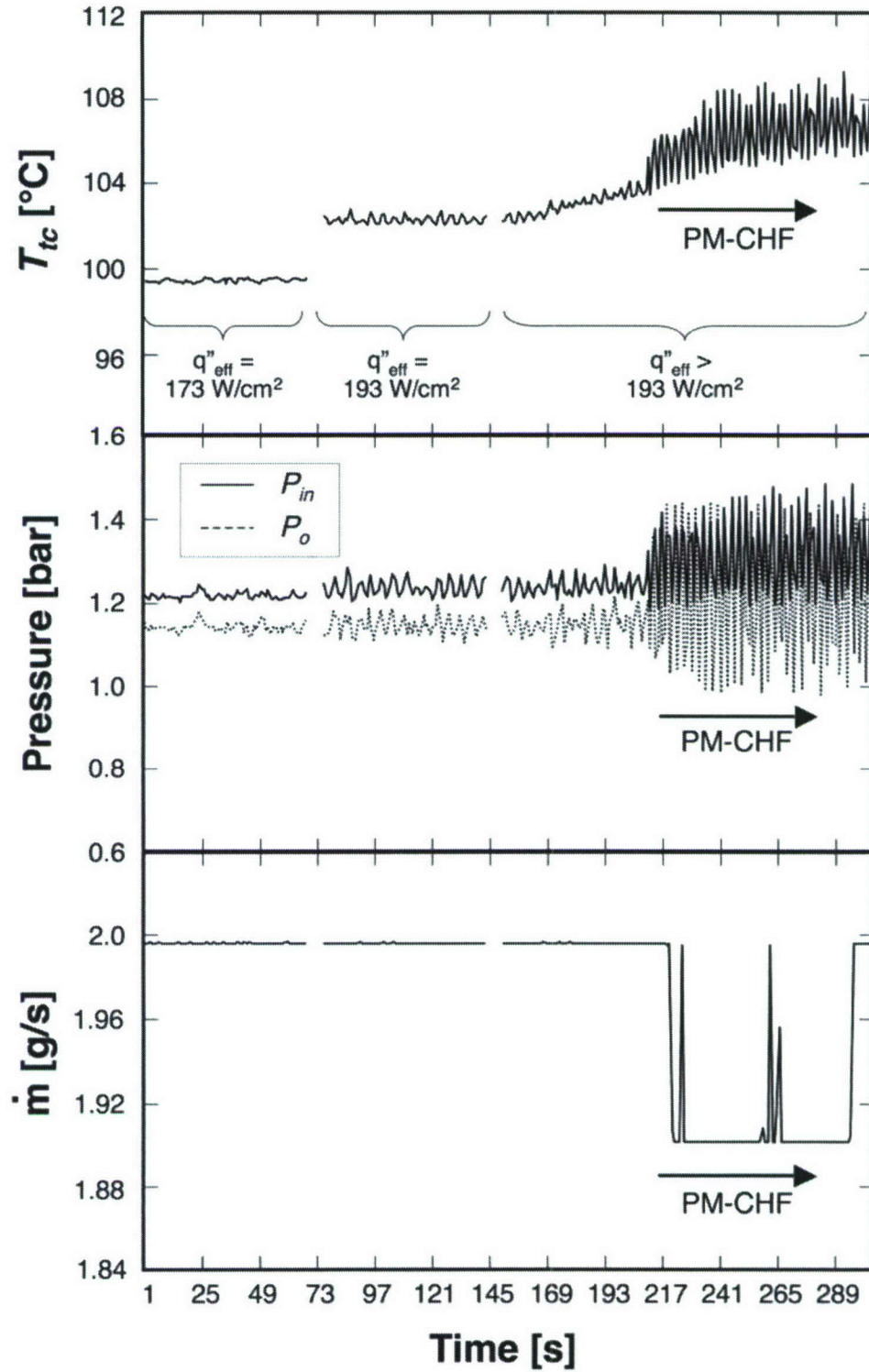


Figure II.6.4 Variations of temperature, pressure, and mass flow rate associated with premature CHF for TS#4, $T_{in} = 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $G = 671 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$.

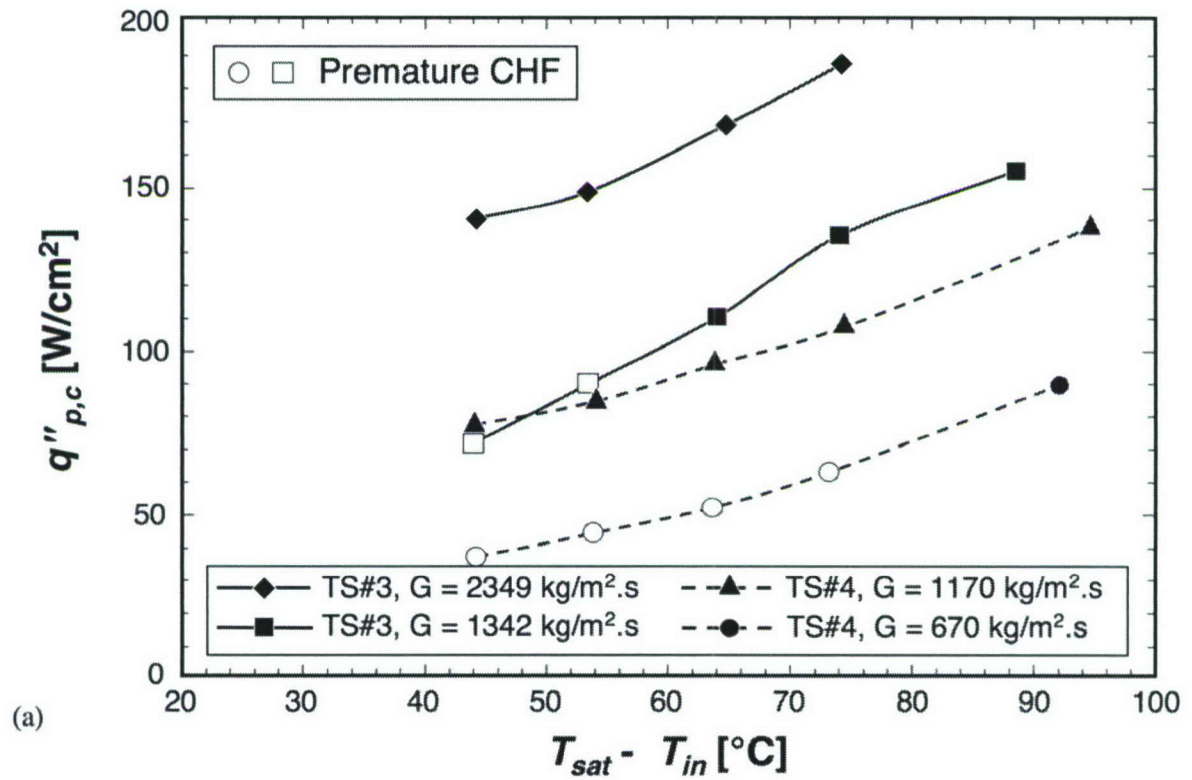


Figure II.6.5 Variation of subcooled boiling CHF with

(a) inlet subcooling and (b) mass velocity.

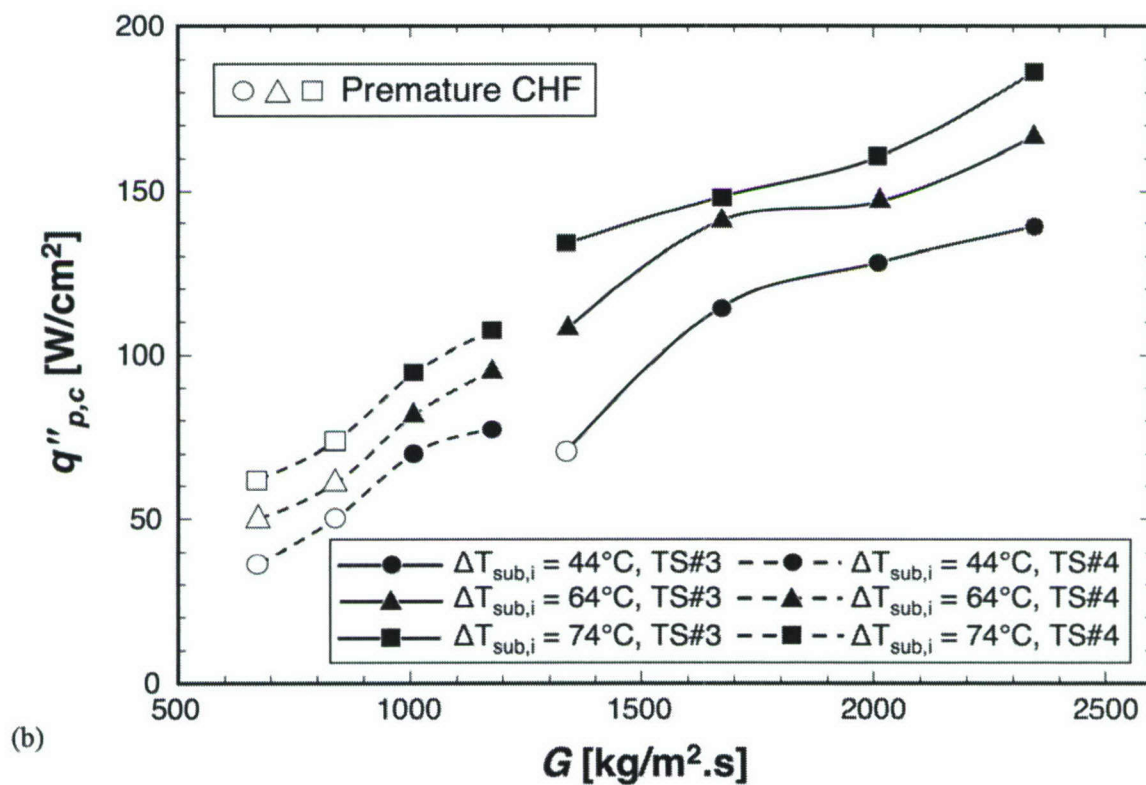


Figure II.6.5 continued.

II.6.2 New CHF Correlation

CHF correlations are based on either inlet (upstream) channel conditions or outlet (local) conditions. Pressure, mass velocity and diameter appear in both types of correlations. However, the effect of inlet quality in inlet conditions correlations is expressed in terms of inlet enthalpy (or inlet subcooling or quality); these correlations also account for quality variations along the channel through their dependence on channel length.

$$q_c'' = f(G, P, h_{in}, D, L). \quad (\text{II.6.3})$$

The parameters in Eq. (6.3) are independent variables that are readily available for CHF determination. On the other hand, while outlet conditions correlations are also based pressure, mass flux and diameter, they account for the effects of quality through outlet enthalpy (or outlet subcooling or quality) since they are based on the premise that CHF occurs locally at the channel outlet.

$$q_c'' = f(G, P, D, h_o). \quad (\text{II.6.4})$$

Therefore, use of an outlet conditions correlation involves indirect estimation of CHF since outlet quality must first be calculated with the CHF data point using an energy balance over the entire heated length. This is why channel length does not appear in Eq. (II.6.4).

Developing universal CHF correlations that are applicable to broad ranges of operating conditions requires amassing large CHF databases. This goal was accomplished by Hall and Mudawar (2000a, 2000b) through the Purdue University - Boiling and Two Phase Flow Laboratory (PU-BTPFL) CHF database, which was assembled with 32,544 data points from over 100 sources, of which 5544 data points are subcooled CHF. The primary objectives of their study were to (a) amass all existing water CHF databases for both vertical upflow and horizontal flow in a uniformly heated channel, (b) assess these databases on a point-by-point basis to eliminate any erroneous data, (c) compile all known subcooled CHF correlations for water flow in a uniformly

heated tube, (d) evaluate these correlations using the CHF database corrected for the erroneous data, and (e) develop simple, subcooled CHF correlations that are superior in accuracy to existing correlations and look-up tables. Hall and Mudawar recommended two correlations for subcooled (negative outlet quality) flow boiling CHF, one is inlet conditions based and the second outlet conditions. In a separate study, Mudawar *et al.* (Mudawar and Bowers, 1999, Hall and Mudawar, 1999) examined a subset of the PU-BTPFL database that involved ultra-high-flux subcooled flow boiling CHF in small diameter tubes in the range of $D = 0.406 - 2.54$ mm with relatively small L/D ratios, and recommended inlet conditions and outlet conditions correlations that are better suited for this subset. This subset includes the worlds highest CHF value of $27,600 \text{ W/cm}^2$ measured with a uniformly heated channel (Mudawar and Bowers, 1999). Table II.6.2 summarizes the correlations based on the entire PU-BTPFL database and on the small diameter subset. Because of the superiority of these four correlations to other published correlations has already been systematically ascertained (Hall and Mudawar, 1999, Hall and Mudawar, 2000b), these correlations are used in the present study as a starting point for developing CHF correlations for micro-channel heat sinks.

The present micro-channel heat sink configuration poses the following challenges when attempting to assess or utilize prior CHF correlations:

- (1) *Working fluid:* most published CHF correlations for subcooled flow boiling are derived from water data; the present data were obtained using HFE 7100 as working fluid.
- (2) *Partial circumferential heating:* while the present micro-channels are heated on three sides, prior CHF correlations are typically derived from data for uniform circumferential heating.
- (3) *Channel cross-section:* most prior correlations are derived from data for circular channels; the present data involves rectangular channels.
- (4) *Multi-channel interactions:* flow interactions between micro-channels can have an appreciable effect on CHF for micro-channel heat sinks. Prior CHF correlations do not account for this effect.

- (5) *Small channel size*: with a few exceptions, prior CHF correlations are based on data for macro-channels that are much larger than those of micro-channel heat sinks.
- (6) *Pre-mature CHF*: this phenomenon appears to be unique to micro-channel heat sinks and, therefore, cannot be predicted by prior CHF correlations.

The applicability of water-based CHF correlations to other fluids is commonly justified by the broad range of databases upon which a correlation is developed, especially when a correlation is presented in dimensionless form. Partial circumferential heating and the effects of the rectangular geometry in the present micro-channel heat sinks is accounted for by using a hydraulic diameter based on the heated perimeter,

$$D_{h,e} = \frac{4A_{ch}}{P_{h,e}} = \frac{4W_{ch}H_{ch}}{(W_{ch} + 2H_{ch})}, \quad (\text{II.6.5})$$

and accounting for the micro-channel's aspect ratio, β , using the following approach.

For a uniformly heated channel, the single-phase convection heat transfer coefficient prevalent in the highly subcooled inlet is given by the relation (Incropera and Dewitt, 2002)

$$Nu = \frac{hD_{eq}}{k_f} = 4.36. \quad (\text{II.6.6})$$

For a rectangular channel that is heated along three sides, the single-phase convection heat transfer coefficient can be derived from the modified relation (Shah and London, 1978)

$$Nu_3 = \frac{hD_{h,e}}{k_f} = 8.235 f(\beta), \quad (\text{II.6.7})$$

where $f(\beta) = 1 - 1.833\beta + 3.767\beta^2 - 5.814\beta^3 + 5.361\beta^4 - 2.0\beta^5$. (II.6.8)

Combining Eqs. (II.6.6) and (II.6.7) provides a relation for equivalent diameter for the present micro-channel configuration.

$$D_{eq} = \frac{D_{h,e}}{1.889 f(\beta)}. \quad (\text{II.6.9})$$

This diameter replaces D in all We_D and L/D terms of the CHF correlations given in Table II.6.2.

The CHF correlations for micro-channel heat sinks must account for two additional effects: multi-channel interactions and small channel size. As discussed in the Introduction, these effects are closely associated with bubble confinement, which can be expressed in terms of the Weber number as suggested by Eq. (II.1.9). Accounting for the effects of the rectangular geometry and three-sided heating, the Weber number is expressed as

$$We_{D_{eq}} = \frac{G^2 D_{eq}}{\sigma \rho_f}. \quad (\text{II.6.10})$$

Therefore, the CHF correlation for the micro-channel heat sink can be obtained by modifying the correlations provided in Table 6.2 according to the relation

$$Bo_{c,MC} = Bo_c f(We_{D_{eq}}), \quad (\text{II.6.11})$$

where $Bo_{c,MC}$ is the Boiling number corresponding to CHF in the micro-channel heat sink and Bo_c is the Boiling number at CHF obtained from the correlations given in Table II.6.2.

This technique for correlating CHF data for micro-channel heat sinks only requires the determination of $f(We_{D_{eq}})$. Using the present database for micro-channel heat sinks, this parameter was fitted as

$$f(We_{D_{eq}}) = We_{D_{eq}}^{0.121}. \quad (\text{II.6.12})$$

Both of the inlet conditions correlations given in Table II.6.2 provided good predictions of the present CHF data. However, the ultra-high-heat-flux correlation provided a slightly better MAE of 8.0% compared to 10.7% for the other correlation. Figure II.6.6 compares the predictions of Eqs. (II.6.11) and (II.6.12) based on the ultra-high-heat-flux inlet conditions correlation to the experimental micro-channel CHF database, excluding the PM-CHF data. Figure II.6.6 shows all the data falling within $\pm 20\%$ from the

predictions. Figure II.6.7 shows the distributions of prediction error relative to mass velocity, quality, and length-to-diameter ratio. Due to the lack of CHF data for smaller diameter test sections, the majority of the test data are limited to $L/D_h = 20 - 30$. The new correlation is valid over the following ranges: $G = 500$ to $2500 \text{ kg/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$, $x_{e,in}^* = -1.0$ to -0.4 , and $P = 1.13$ to 1.48 bar .

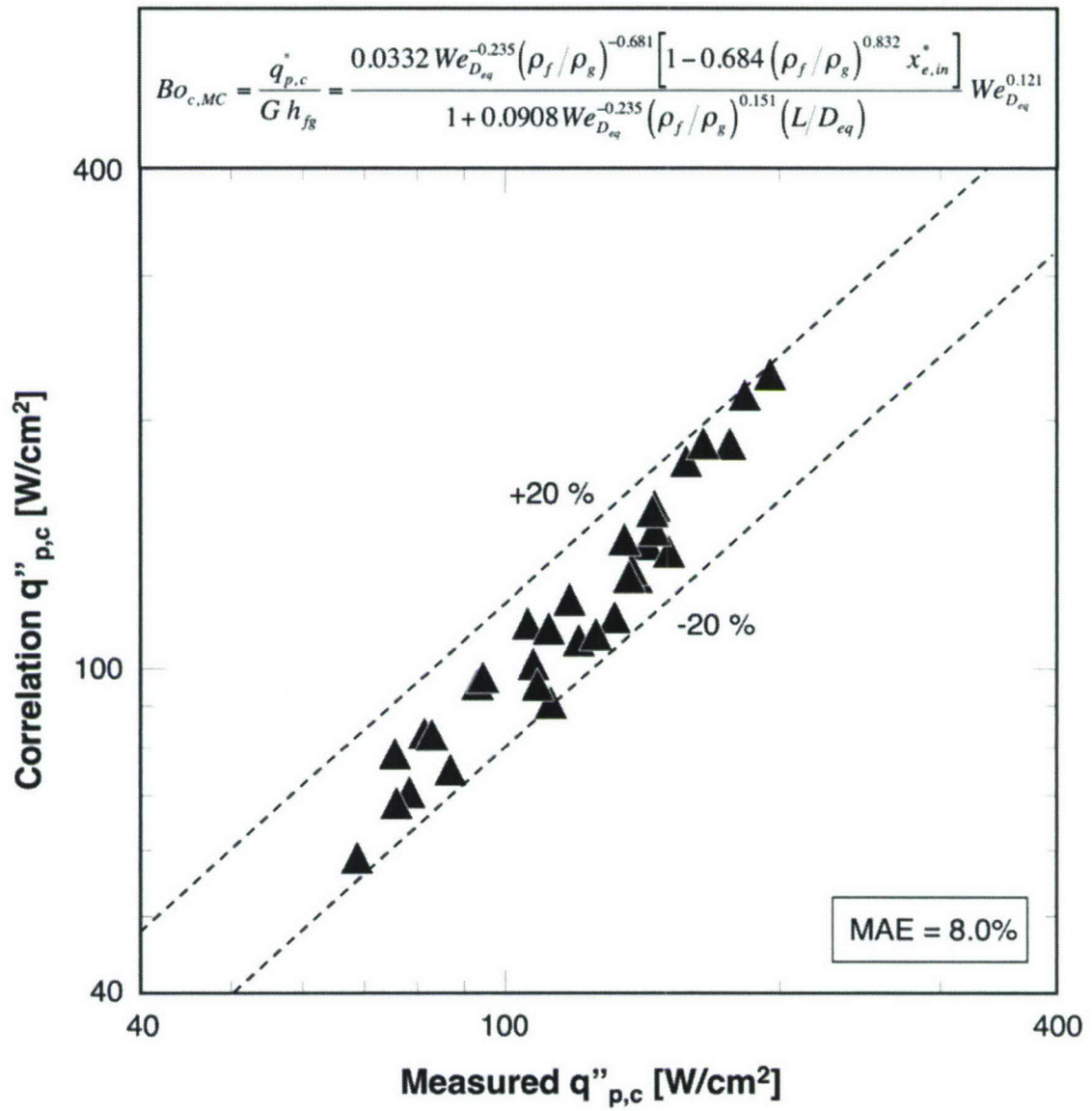


Figure II.6.6 Comparison of predictions of subcooled boiling CHF correlation and experimental data.

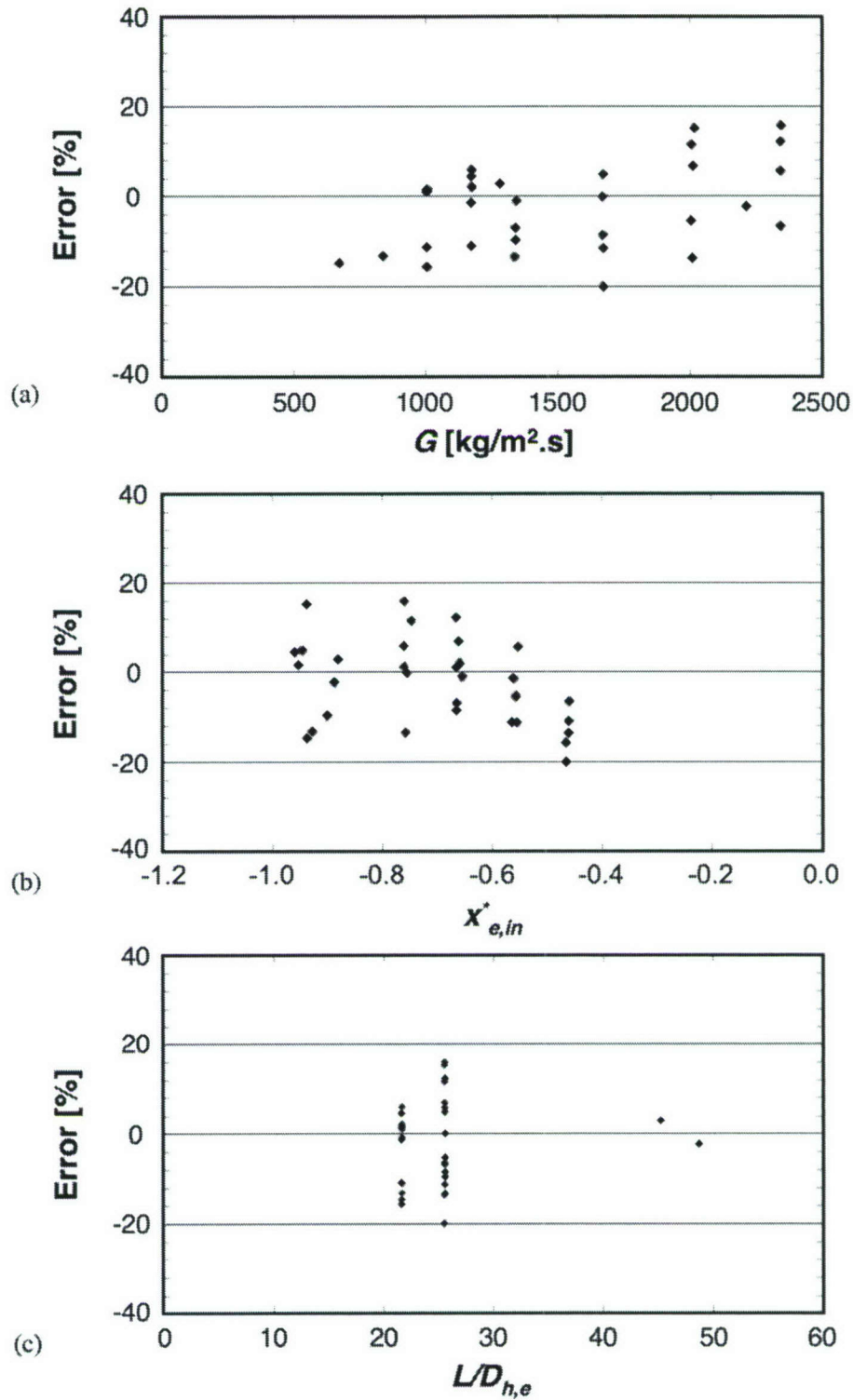


Figure II.6.7 Error distributions in predictions of subcooled CHF correlation relative to (a) mass velocity, (b) inlet quality, and (c) length-to-hydraulic-diameter ratio.

II.6.3 Strategy for Exceeding 1000 W/cm²

The ability to dissipate 1000 W/cm² is a major challenge for advanced defense electronics for which the present study is intended. Ironically, efforts to experimentally demonstrate such heat dissipation is limited by the ability to construct test heaters that can endure these extreme heating conditions. Large temperature gradients between the cartridge heaters embedded in the test heater and the test surface often produce temperatures that are too high for the materials comprising the test heater, such as plastics and sealants. In the present study, tests had to terminated at about 700 W/cm² to avoid damaging the test module parts.

However, using the new CHF correlation, it is possible to determine operating conditions that can yield the required 1000 W/cm² heat dissipation. Calculations are based on the four different micro-channel geometries examined in the preset study and two inlet qualities, $x_{in} = -0.65$ (for $T_{in} = 0^\circ\text{C}$) and $x_{in} = -0.85$ (for $T_{in} = -20^\circ\text{C}$). Outlet pressure is fixed at $P_o = 1.14$ bar.

Figure II.6.8 shows conditions exist that can easily exceed 1000 W/cm². Results are based on G in Fig. 6.8(a) and \dot{m} in Fig. 6.8(b); the later provides a more realistic comparison of different micro-channel sizes. Because of their relatively smaller heat transfer area, smaller diameter channels require higher mass fluxes to achieve 1000 W/cm² than larger channels. However, on a heat sink basis, smaller diameters can actually exceed 1000 W/cm² at lower total coolant flow rates than larger diameters. Decreasing the coolant's inlet temperature (*i.e.*, increasing $\Delta T_{sub,in}$) also decreases the total flow rate required to exceed this heat flux.

Interestingly, the required coolant flow rates according to Fig. II.6.8 are quite feasible with the present indirect refrigeration system. However, aside from the aforementioned high temperatures and test module's material concerns, such flow rates were not possible for the smaller test sections because high pressure drop exceeded the capability of the primary coolant's pump. These findings provide important quantitative practical guidelines for the attainment of the thermal goal.

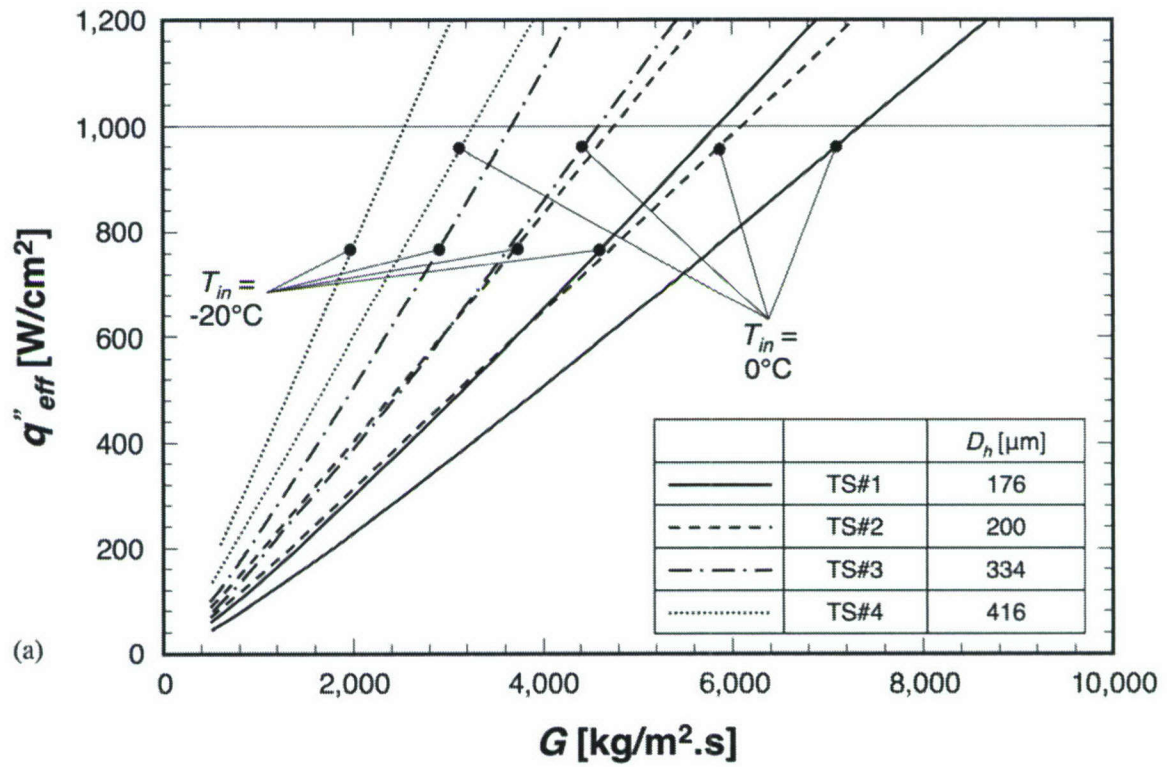


Figure II.6.8 Conditions required to exceed $1000 \text{ W}/\text{cm}^2$: (a) CHF versus mass velocity; (b) CHF versus mass flow rate.

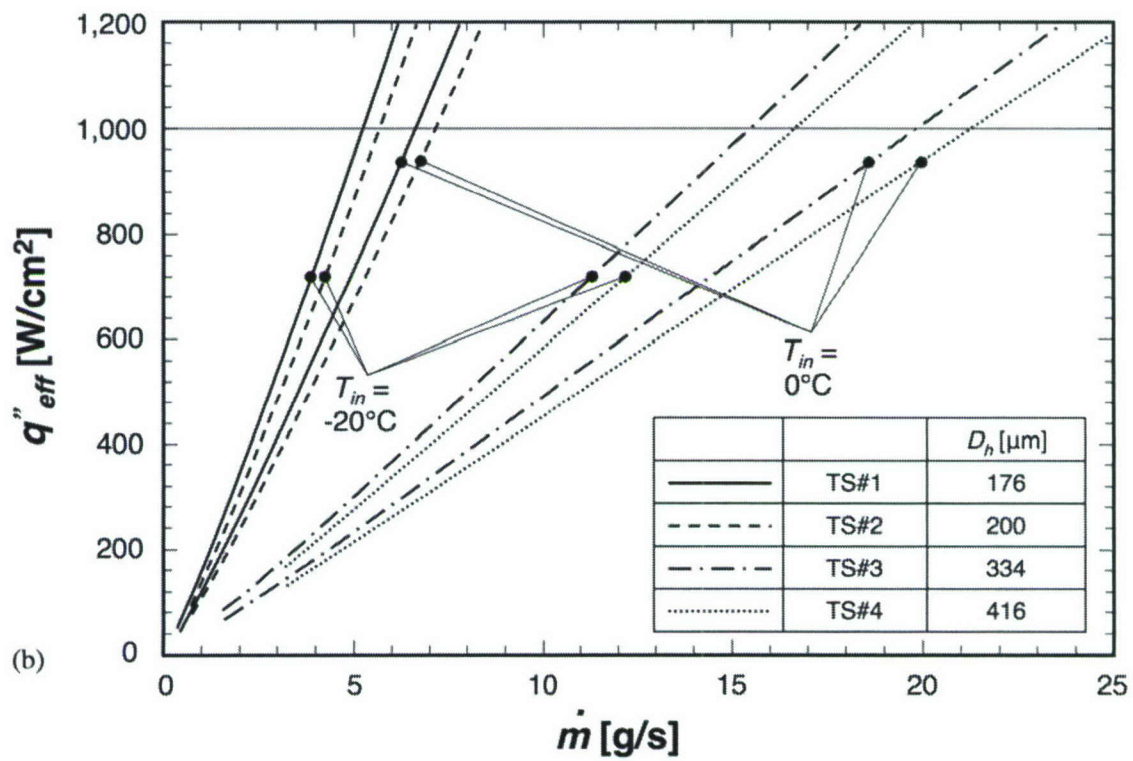


Figure II.6.8 continued.

II.7 CONCLUSIONS

7.1 System Development and Flow Visualization

A new micro-channel cooling scheme is suggested where the primary coolant passing through the micro-channel heat sink is pre-cooled to low temperature using an indirect refrigeration cooling system. The cooling performance of this system was examined for different flow rates using four different micro-channel geometries. Extensive high-speed video imaging and photomicrography were used to capture interfacial behavior with increasing heat flux up to and including CHF. Key findings from the study are as follows.

- (1) Indirect refrigeration cooling is a highly effective means for removing heat from high-flux devices while maintaining low device temperatures. Unlike direct refrigeration cooling, where the micro-channel heat sink serves as evaporator in a vapor compression cycle, the present scheme decouples the quality requirements of the heat sink from those of the refrigeration loop. This decoupling alleviates compressor problems, facilitates high cooling capacity at low temperatures, and allows heat sink operation at near-ambient pressure.
- (2) Cooling performance of the micro-channel heat sink can be greatly enhanced by lowering the temperature of coolant entering the heat sink. With temperatures of 0 °C or below, the heat sink could dissipate up to 100 W/cm² without phase change while maintaining surface temperatures below ambient. Heat fluxes as high as 700 W/cm² could be managed with flow boiling without the risk of burnout.

- (3) Unlike most earlier two-phase heat sink studies, where annular film evaporation is the dominant mechanism for heat removal, the low coolant temperature used in the present study results in predominantly subcooled flow boiling, and outlet coolant temperature never reaches saturation. Some oblong bubbles typical of slug flow form mainly towards the outlet of the micro-channels. Decreasing the coolant temperature (*i.e.*, increasing subcooling) delays the onset of boiling, reduces bubble departure size and coalescence effects, and enhances CHF.
- (4) CHF is associated with departure from nucleate boiling, caused by vapor blanket formation along the walls of the micro-channels even while abundant liquid is available in the core.
- (5) Micro-channel hydraulic diameter and width play a complex role in cooling performance, and this role varies greatly with liquid subcooling. Small hydraulic diameter increases total wetted area, decreasing heat flux along the micro-channel walls. This tends to decrease void fraction along the micro-channels. On the other hand, a limit might be reached where decreasing micro-channel width causes bubbles to span the entire width and promote early transition to slug flow. These complex effects highlight the need for a comprehensive mechanistic model for subcooled flow boiling in micro-channel heat sinks.
- (6) A premature form of CHF is associated with vapor flow reversal toward the inlet plenum. This is followed by development of a large vapor mass in the upstream plenum, which prevents liquid from flowing into the micro-channels. Momentary dryout ensues inside the micro-channels and wall temperatures begin to rise. The vapor buildup causes an increase in the upstream pressure, which ultimately becomes strong enough to purge the vapor mass through the micro-channels and into the outlet plenum. This process is then repeated in a cyclical manner as wall temperatures continue to rise gradually with each new cycle. This form of CHF occurs only at low mass velocities and can be eliminated by decreasing coolant temperature and/or increasing flow rate.

7.2 Experimental Results and Correlations

Experiments were performed to determine both the pressure drop and heat transfer characteristics of two-phase micro-channel flow. Unlike earlier studies of two-phase heat sinks, where annular evaporation is typically the dominant mechanism for heat removal, the present work focused on subcooled boiling characteristics. Four different test sections were tested to assess the effects of not only hydraulic diameter, but micro-channel width and aspect ratio as well. Aided by findings from the flow visualization study presented in chapter 3, the data were carefully examined for important parametric trends and compared to predictions of earlier correlations. Key findings from this study are as follows.

- (1) During single-phase cooling, pressure drop decreases with increasing heat flux because of decreased liquid viscosity. After bubbles form and depart into the liquid flow, void fraction begins to increase appreciably, causing pressure drop to begin increasing with increasing heat flux. These opposite trends produce a minimum in the variation of pressure drop with heat flux.
- (2) Increasing the subcooling of incoming liquid decreases two-phase pressure drop because of decreased void fraction caused by strong condensation at bubble interfaces, and decreased likelihood of bubble coalescence.
- (3) The effects of hydraulic diameter on two-phase heat transfer are complicated by the relative size of bubbles and micro-channel width. While smaller hydraulic diameters tend to enhance two-phase cooling performance by increasing both mass velocity and wetted area, smaller micro-channel width can trigger early transition from bubbly to slug flow, causing a reduction in cooling effectiveness.
- (4) It is quite difficult to identify correlations from the heat transfer literature that can predict pressure drop and cooling behavior of subcooled micro-channel heat sinks. This difficulty is the result of scarcity of subcooled boiling correlations in general, and the drastic differences in fluid, hydraulic diameter, and operating conditions of

the present study compared to the macro-channel heat transfer databases upon which these correlations are based. A new modified form of earlier correlations by Shah produced good predictions of the present heat transfer data.

- (5) The shortage of useful correlations highlights the need for new mechanistic models of subcooled micro-channel boiling that capture the complex interfacial interactions reported in flow visualization work.

7.3 Developing homogeneous Layer Model (DHLM)

This study also examined subcooled boiling pressure drop in a micro-channel heat sink. A new control volume model is proposed in which the subcooled flow is described as consisting of two layers: a homogeneous two-phase layer near the heated wall and a subcooled bulk liquid layer. Mass, momentum and energy conservation equations are combined to predict pressure drop for thermodynamic equilibrium qualities below zero. Achieving closure in the construction of this Developing Homogeneous Layer Model (*DHLM*) required incorporating a relation for apparent quality across the two-phase layer as well as a new criterion for bubble departure. This model enables the determination of axial variations of two-phase layer thickness and velocity as well as pressure drop, and is specifically tailored to rectangular micro-channels. The model shows good predictions of pressure drop data for different mass velocities and subcoolings for four different micro-channel sizes.

7.4 Critical Heat Flux for Subcooled Flow Boiling

This study explored the critical heat flux (CHF) limit for micro-channel sinks under subcooled flow conditions using HFE 7100 as working fluid. The subcooling was achieved by pre-cooling the fluid using a low-temperature refrigeration system. Prior CHF correlations were modified to accommodate the unique features of micro-channel

heat sinks, such as rectangular geometry, three-sided heating and flow interactions between micro-channels. Key conclusions from the study are as follows:

- (1) High inlet subcooling greatly reduces both bubble departure diameter and void fraction, precluding any flow pattern transitions beyond the bubbly regime. CHF is triggered by vapor blanket formation along the micro-channel walls despite the abundance of core liquid. This behavior is consistent with the mechanism of Departure from Nucleate Boiling (DNB).
- (2) CHF increases with increases in mass velocity and/or subcooling. CHF also increases with decreasing hydraulic diameter for a given total coolant mass flow rate because of the increased mass velocity. Exceptions to the diameter trend are very small diameters and/or very small micro-channel widths that may promote early transition to slug flow.
- (3) Weak momentum of incoming liquid at low mass velocities and small inlet subcoolings trigger a premature form of CHF caused by vapor backflow into the inlet. This type of CHF is associated with significant fluctuations in inlet and outlet pressure, as well as wall temperature.
- (4) A systematic technique was developed to modify existing CHF correlations to more accurately account for the unique features of micro-channel heat sinks, including rectangular cross-section, three-sided heating, and flow interaction between micro-channels. This technique is successful at correlating the present data for different hydraulic diameters, mass velocities and inlet subcoolings.

PART III. Assessment of the Effectiveness of Nanofluids for Single-Phase and Two-Phase Heat Transfer in Micro-Channels

III.1 INTRODUCTION

Solid particles generally possess far greater thermal conductivity than common heat transfer liquids. Mixing solid particles in a liquid can therefore enhance the cooling potential of the liquid by increasing the thermal conductivity of the suspended fluid.

In the past, this goal was sought by using relatively large ('milli' or 'micro' scale) particles. While these fluids do provide the aforementioned cooling benefit, their implementation is complicated by their tendency to damage mechanical pumps and valves, as well as clog flow passages due to particle settling.

Recent developments in nanotechnology and related manufacturing techniques have made possible the production of far smaller – nano-sized - particles. Such particles greatly reduce the damage to flow loop components while providing the cooling benefits. Choi and co-workers at Argonne National Laboratory proposed the use of nanoparticles to enhance the thermal conductivity of liquids, and coined the term 'nanofluids' for the resulting mixtures [Choi (1995), Lee and Choi (1996), Lee et al (1999)]. Later studies experimentally demonstrated this enhancement effect. Lee et al. (1999) used 50 nm or smaller Al_2O_3 and CuO particles to enhance the thermal conductivity of their nanofluids. They showed the percentage enhancement in thermal conductivity was not simply a function of concentration and conductivities of the particle material and liquid, but particle size and shape as well. Xuan and Li (2000) reported that copper particles provided greater thermal conductivity enhancement than metal oxide particles. Xue (2003) showed analytically that carbon nanotubes produce the highest conductivity enhancement of all nanofluids.

The aforementioned clogging problem is perhaps most serious in micro-channel flow devices recently recommended for high-heat-flux electronic and aerospace applications. These devices offer a number of cooling advantages such as high convective heat transfer coefficients, small size and weight, and reduced coolant inventory. Nanofluids are considered an ideal fit for micro-channel devices because they are thought to virtually eliminate the clogging problem. Furthermore, they can enhance the already substantial heat transfer coefficients realized with micro-channel flow by the added benefit of greater thermal conductivity.

Investigating the combined advantages of micro-channel flow and nanofluids is precisely the goal of the present study. Those advantages are examined experimentally for both single-phase and two-phase situations, and practical conclusions are drawn concerning the implementation of nanofluids in small coolant passages.

III.2 ENHANCEMENT FOR LAMINAR VERSUS TURBULENT FLOW

Aside from thermal conductivity, other fluid properties will change by the particle inclusion, and it is the combined effect of these property variations that dictates the overall enhancement effect for a nanofluid. This point is illustrated with the aid of a simple example that will also show how this effect is quite different for laminar flow as compared to turbulent flow.

Figure III.2.1 shows a fluid being heated uniformly as it flows inside a circular tube. Ignoring entrance effects for now (these effects will be discussed latter in this report), the flow is assumed both hydraulically and thermally fully developed. The Nusselt number is constant for laminar flow and follows the Dittus-Boelter equation for turbulent flow.

$$Nu = 4.36 \quad \text{for laminar flow} \quad (\text{III.2.1})$$

$$\text{and} \quad Nu = 0.023 Re^{0.8} Pr^{0.4} \quad \text{for turbulent flow.} \quad (\text{III.2.2})$$

Lee et al. (1999) showed that the thermal conductivity of Al_2O_3 nanofluids follows the two-components mixture conductivity model of Hamilton-Crosser model fairly well.

$$k_{nf} = \left[\frac{k_p + (n-1)k_{bf} - (n-1)\varphi(k_{bf} - k_p)}{k_p + (n-1)k_{bf} + \varphi(k_{bf} - k_p)} \right] k_{bf}, \quad (\text{III.2.3})$$

where k_{nf} , k_{bf} and k_p are the thermal conductivities of the nanofluid, base fluid and solid particles, respectively, φ is the volumetric concentration of nanoparticles, and n is solid particle shape factor ($n = 3$ for spherical particles).

Following Wen and Ding (2004), the Einstein equation is used for dynamic viscosity.

$$\frac{\mu_{nf}}{\mu_{bf}} = 1 + 2.5\varphi, \quad (\text{III.2.4})$$

where μ_{nf} and μ_{bf} are the viscosities of the nanofluid and base fluid, respectively.

All other properties are linearized relative to nanoparticle volumetric concentration (Pak and Cho (1998)). This yields relationships for density and specific heat, respectively,

$$\rho_{nf} = (1 - \varphi)\rho_{bf} + \varphi\rho_p \quad (\text{III.2.5})$$

and
$$c_{p,nf} = (1 - \varphi)c_{p,bf} + \varphi c_{p,p}. \quad (\text{III.2.6})$$

The system shown in Fig. III.2.1 yields the following variations of bulk mean fluid temperature and inside wall temperature, respectively, with distance x from the tube entrance.

$$T_{m,x} = T_{in} + \frac{q'' Dx}{\dot{m} c_{p,nf}} \quad (\text{III.2.7})$$

and
$$T_{w,x} = T_{m,x} + \frac{q''}{h}. \quad (\text{III.2.8})$$

Two kinds of base fluids are examined in this example, water and HFE-7100. The latter is a 3M dielectric fluid used in electronics cooling and general heat transfer applications. The thermal conductivity for this fluid is significantly smaller than for water. Table III.2.1 shows properties of these base fluids as well as for different concentrations of Al_2O_3 .

Figure III.2.2 shows heat transfer results for the laminar case. For each base fluid, increasing nanoparticle concentration is shown in Fig. III.2.2(a) monotonically increasing the heat transfer coefficient. This is the result of the heat transfer coefficient being proportional to thermal conductivity for laminar flow. Notice that the heat transfer coefficient values with HFE-7100 are much smaller than for water. Overall, the enhancement ratio is almost the same for water and HFE 7100 nanofluids.

However, as shown in Fig. III.2.2(b), increasing nanoparticle concentration increases both fluid and wall temperatures for the nanofluids relative to their base fluid counterparts. This temperature increase is the result of the decreased specific heat of nanofluids caused by the solid particles having lower specific heat than fluids. Notice

for HFE-7100 the large axial rise in both fluid and wall temperature. This trend is the result of the small specific heat for this fluid.

Figure III.2.3 shows the results for the turbulent case. According to Eq. (2), $h \sim k^{0.6}$ for turbulent flow compared to $h \sim k$ for laminar flow. This implies the enhancement effect due to the increased thermal conductivity of nanofluids is significantly weaker for turbulent flow than for laminar. The enhancement in turbulent flow is also dependent on flow rate in addition to viscosity and specific heat. Since $h \sim k^{0.6} \mu^{-0.4} c_p^{0.4}$, and because increased nanoparticle concentration enhances viscosity and degrades specific heat, the enhancement effect of nanoparticles in turbulent flow is further reduced compared to thermal conductivity alone. This effect is quite evident in Fig. III.2.3(a).

This simple analysis shows how the enhancement effect of nanofluids is more effectively realized in laminar flow. Interestingly, most micro-channel flows of practical interest are laminar because of both their small hydraulic diameter and small flow rates. Implementing nanofluids in micro-channel devices therefore appears to be an advantageous strategy in pursuit of enhanced cooling performance.

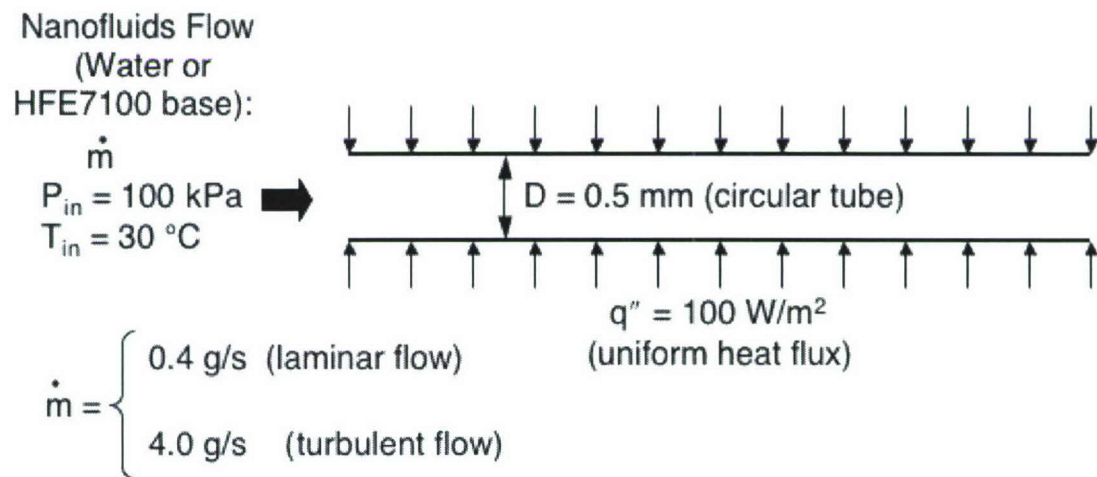


Figure III.2.1 Uniformly heated flow in circular tube.

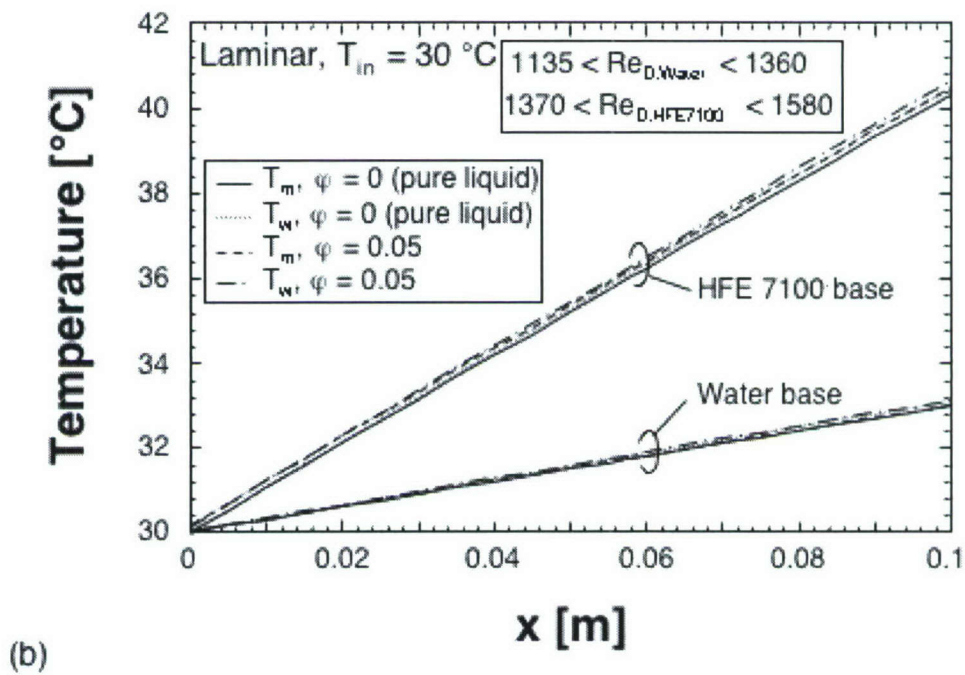
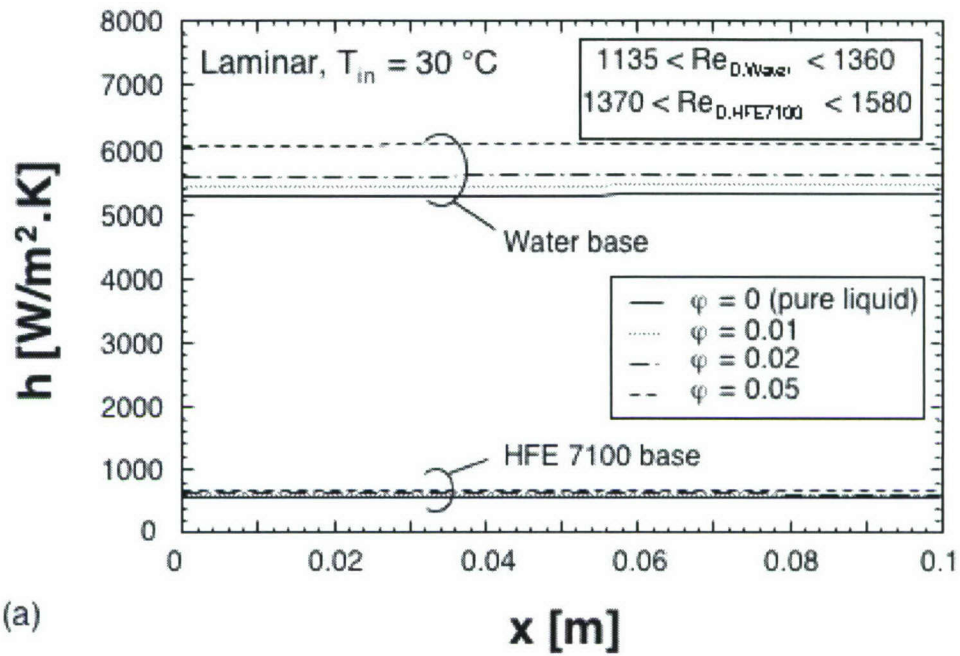


Figure III.2.2 Axial variations of (a) heat transfer coefficient and (b) bulk and wall temperatures for laminar flow and different nanoparticle concentrations in water and HFE7100 base fluids.

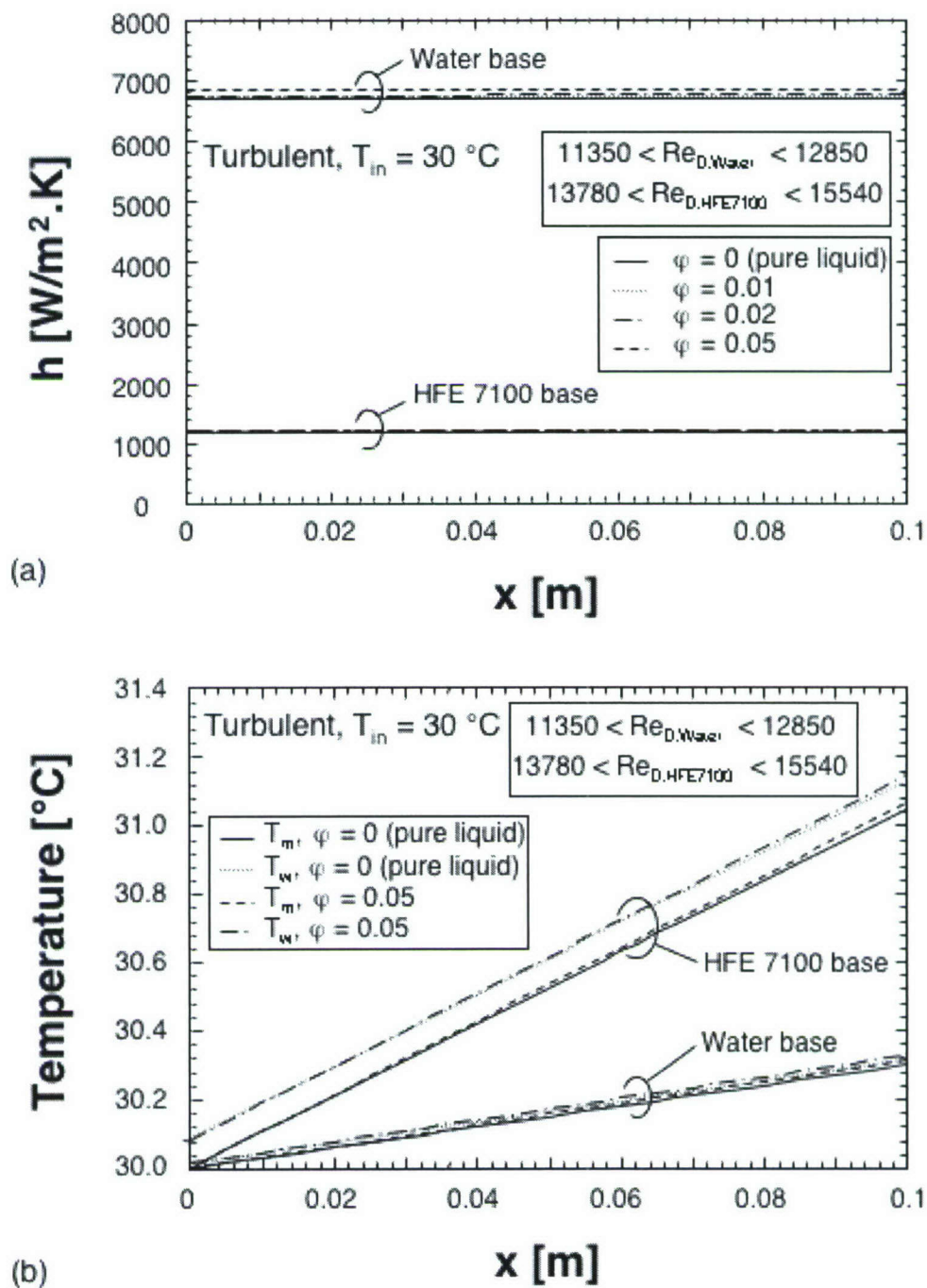


Figure III.2.3 Axial variations of (a) heat transfer coefficient and (b) bulk and wall temperatures for turbulent flow and different nanoparticle concentrations in water and HFE7100 base fluids.

Table III.2.1 Al₂O₃ nanoparticle suspension fluid properties at 30 °C and 100 kPa.

	Water Base						HFE 7100 Base					
	$\phi = 0\%$	1%	2%	3%	4%	5%	$\phi = 0\%$	1%	2%	3%	4%	5%
k_{eff} [W/m.K]	0.603	0.620	0.638	0.656	0.675	0.693	0.0678	0.0699	0.0720	0.0741	0.0763	0.0785
ρ_{np} [kg/m ³]	995.7	1021.7	1047.7	1073.8	1099.8	1125.9	1455.4	1476.9	1498.3	1519.8	1541.2	1562.7
μ_{np} [kg/m.s]	7.977×10^{-4}	8.177×10^{-4}	8.376×10^{-4}	8.576×10^{-4}	8.775×10^{-4}	8.974×10^{-4}	6.556×10^{-4}	6.720×10^{-4}	6.884×10^{-4}	7.048×10^{-4}	7.212×10^{-4}	7.376×10^{-4}
$c_{p,np}$ [kJ/kg.K]	4.183	4.149	4.115	4.081	4.046	4.012	1.193	1.189	1.184	1.180	1.176	1.172

* Solid (Al₂O₃) properties: $\rho_s = 3,600 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $k_s = 36.0 \text{ W/m.K}$, $c_{p,s} = 0.765 \text{ kJ/kg.K}$

III.3. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

III.3.1 Nanofluid Preparation

The solid particles used in this study were Al_2O_3 . The nanofluid was produced by gas condensation by Nanophase Technologies. Insoluble solid Al_2O_3 particles with an area-averaged size of about 36 nm came dispersed in high concentration in water, which formed the base fluid. This high concentration fluid was diluted with de-ionized water to the desired specified volume concentration demanded for individual experiments.

Two volumetric concentrations of Al_2O_3 nanofluid, 1% and 2%, were tested in the present study. The particle size and shape were identical to those used by Lee et al. (1999), who measured about 6% enhancement in thermal conductivity with 2% Al_2O_3 .

III.3.2 Test Loop and Operating Procedure

The enhancement effects of the Al_2O_3 nanofluids were examined with the aid of a test facility that was used in earlier studies of single-phase and two-phase micro-channel heat sink performance by Qu and Mudawar (2002, 2003, 2004). As shown in Fig. III.3.1, water was pumped from a reservoir through a filter followed by one of two parallel flowmeters, and a constant-temperature bath before entering the micro-channel test module. Exiting the test module, the fluid was passed through a water-cooled condenser before returning to the reservoir. Since the flow meters were not calibrated for the 1% and 2% Al_2O_3 concentrations, a bypass was included immediately downstream of the flowmeters to calibrate the flowmeters for these concentrations. The

calibration was achieved by dividing the mass of nanofluid accumulated in a beaker by the fill time. A precision digital bench scale was used for the mass measurements.

Figure III.3.2 shows a schematic of the micro-channel test module. Rectangular $215\ \mu\text{m}$ wide by $821\ \mu\text{m}$ deep grooves were milled into the top surface of an oxygen-free copper block. This block was inserted into a G-7 plastic housing and sealed atop with a polycarbonate plastic cover plate. This formed 21 parallel micro-channels with a hydraulic diameter of $341\ \mu\text{m}$ and a total planform area $1\ \text{cm}$ wide by $4.48\ \text{cm}$ long. Heating was provided by 12 cartridge heaters that were embedded in the underside of the copper block. The G-7 housing featured inlet and exit plenums where the fluid temperature and pressure were measured with the aid of type-K thermocouples and pressure transducers, respectively.

Figure III.3.5(b) shows the detailed construction of the copper block. Notice the three deep cuts in the copper block virtually dividing the block into four cells, which helped confine the power dissipated by each set of cartridge heaters to the micro-channel flow region immediately above, thus minimizing axial heat flow. Four type K thermocouples were inserted along the flow direction to determine the channel bottom wall temperatures. A Yokogawa WT210 power meter measured electric power input to the copper block. All the facility's sensor signals were input to an HP 3852A data acquisition system.

Cooling performances of the nanofluids were benchmarked against that for pure water. The pure water experiments were performed first. The test facility was drained completely and flushed very carefully with de-ionized water before it was filled with a new fluid. Operating conditions for the study were as follows: $Re_{Dh} = 140 - 941$, $Q = 100 - 300\ \text{W}$, $T_{in} = 30\ ^\circ\text{C}$, $P_{in} = 1.17 - 1.36\ \text{bar}$, and $P_{out} = 1.12\ \text{bar}$. Measurement uncertainties were $\pm 0.3\ ^\circ\text{C}$ for temperature, 0.5% for pressure, 0.1% for electrical power, and 2% for flow rate. Heat loss from the copper block was estimated at less than 5% of the electrical power input.

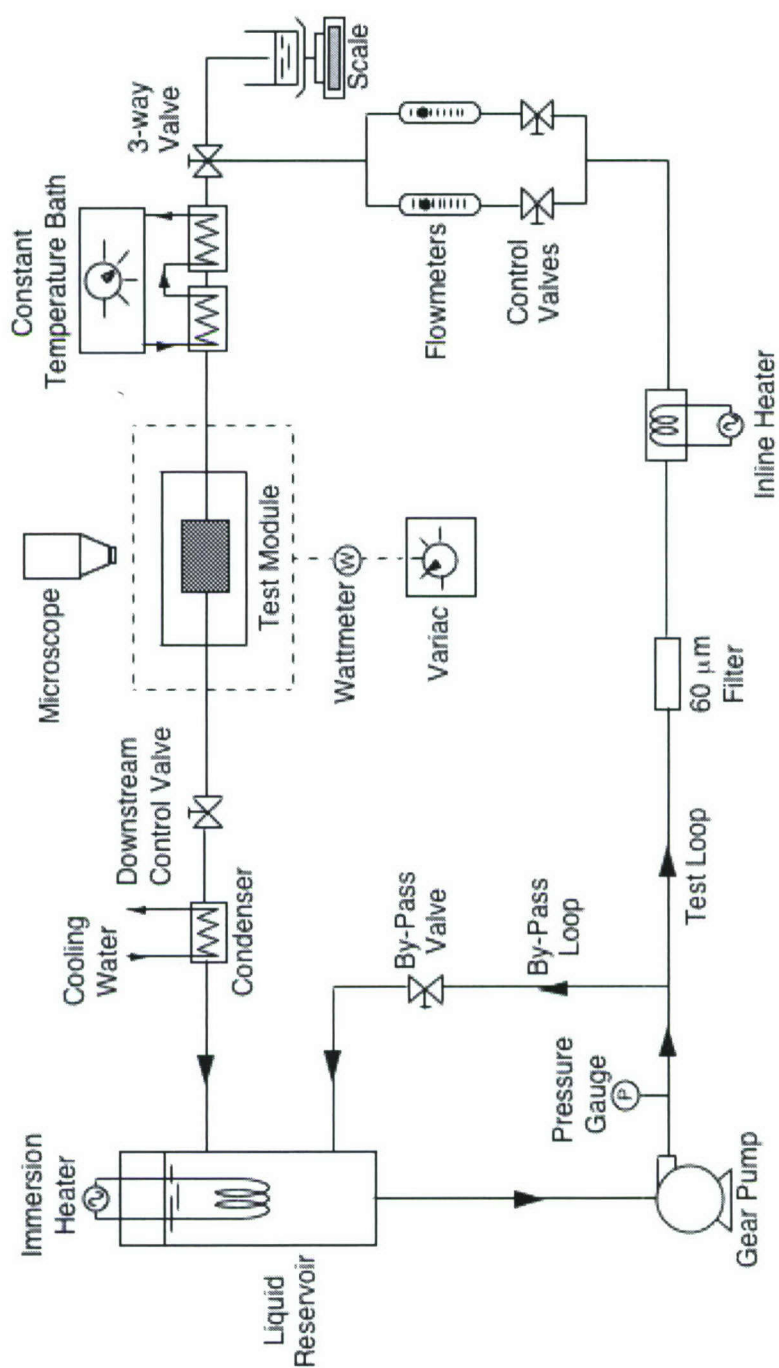


Figure III.3.1 Schematic of flow loop.

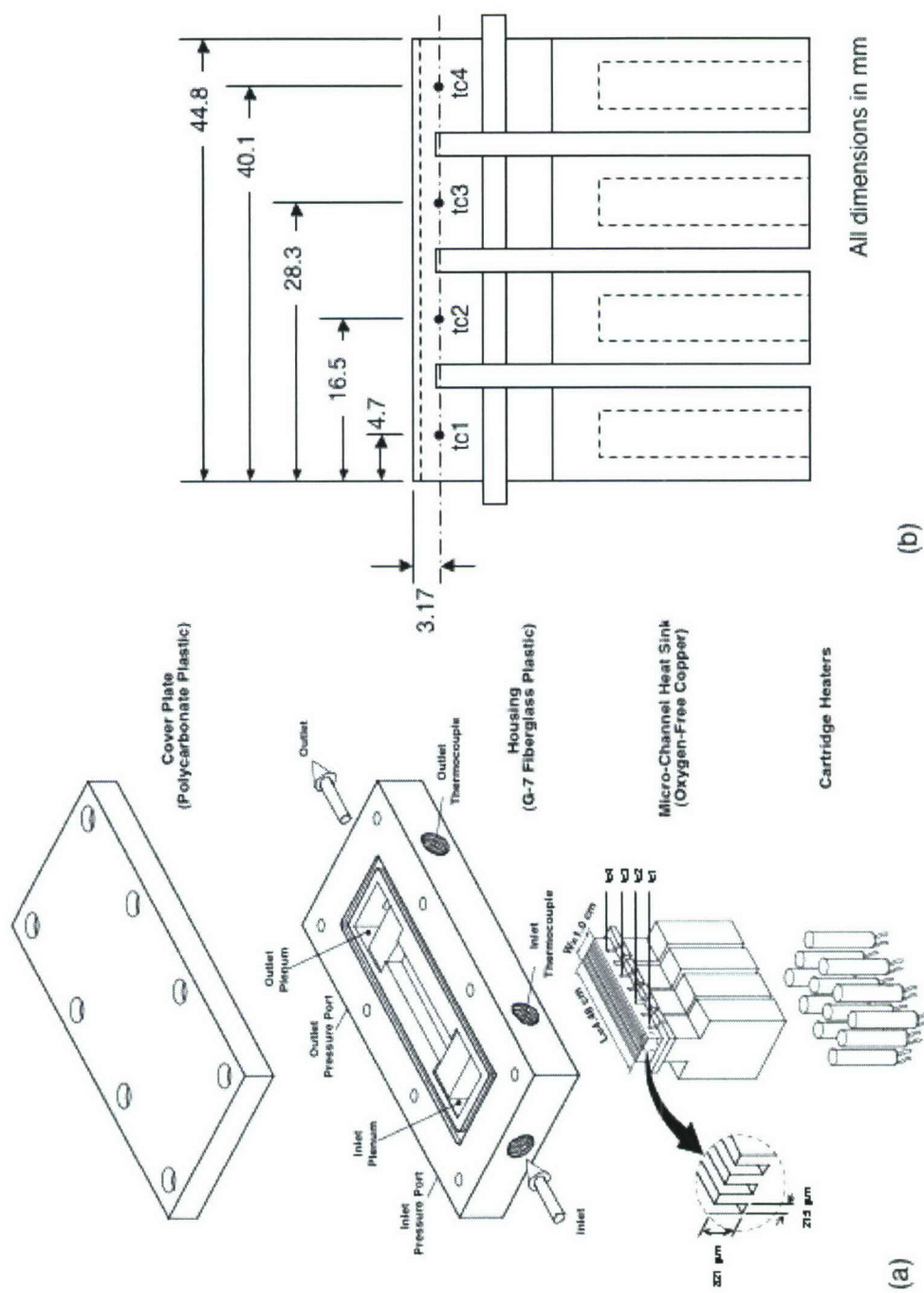


Figure III.3.2 (a) Construction of micro-channel test module and (b) thermocouple locations in copper block inside test module.

III.4 SINGLE-PHASE RESULTS

III.4.1 Pressure Drop

Suspending solid particles in a fluid generally increases dynamic viscosity relative to the base fluid. Even with nanoparticles, this phenomenon causes a pressure drop increase in micro-channels compared to an equal mass flow rate of the base fluid.

Since the present pressure measurements were made in the inlet and outlet plenums of the test module, they included inlet contraction pressure loss and outlet expansion pressure recovery in addition to the pressure drop along the micro-channels as detailed by Qu and Mudawar (2002) for pure water.

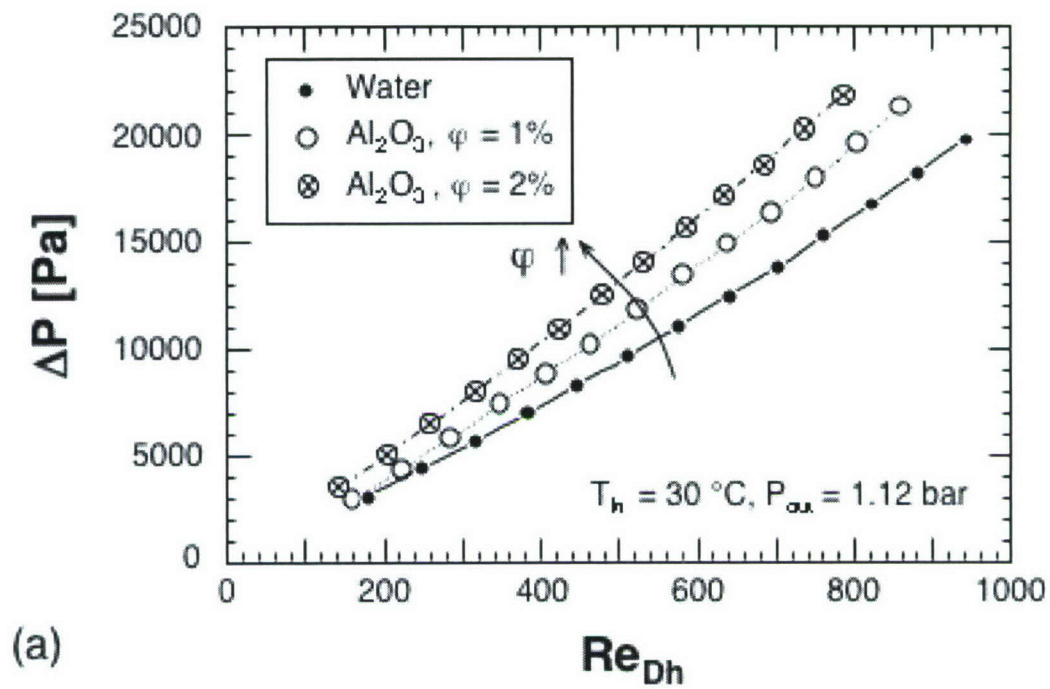
Figure III.4.1(a) shows the variation of the measured pressure drop between the inlet and outlet plenums with Reynolds number for adiabatic flow. A strong particle concentration dependency is shown with the total pressure drop increasing with increasing nanoparticle concentration. Instead of using the viscosity relation given earlier in Eq. (III.2.4), Re_{Dh} in Fig. III.4.1(b) was based an empirical relation developed specifically for water-based Al_2O_3 nanofluids [Maiga et al. (2004)],

$$\frac{\mu_{nf}}{\mu_{bf}} = 123\varphi^2 + 7.3\varphi + 1. \quad (III.4.1)$$

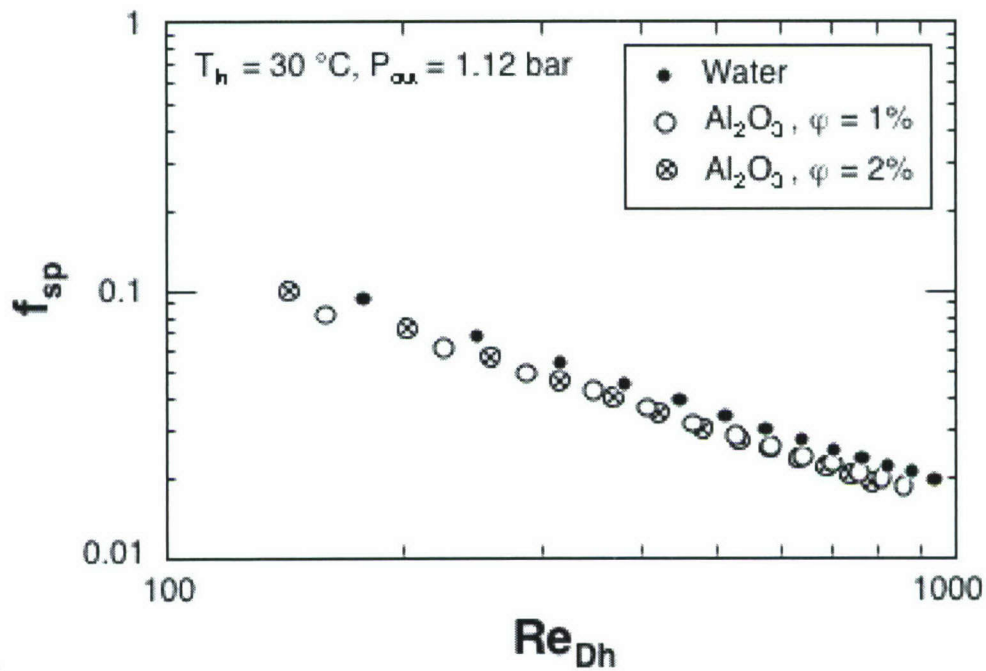
After subtracting the effects of inlet contraction and outlet expansion from the total measured pressure drop (see Qu and Mudawar (2002) for detailed calculation scheme), a single-phase micro-channel friction factor was determined from the pressure drop ΔP_{ch} calculated for the micro-channels alone.

$$f_{sp} = \frac{\Delta P_{ch} D_h}{2L\rho_f u^2}. \quad (III.4.2)$$

Figure III.4.1 (b) shows particle concentration does not have a clear influence on the friction factor dependence on Reynolds number. Error propagation from measurement uncertainties is estimated at 2.9% in friction factor calculation.



(a)



(b)

Figure III.4.1 Variations of (a) pressure drop across test module and (b) friction factor across micro-channels with Reynolds number for pure water and for 1% and 2% Al_2O_3 .

III.4.2 Heat Transfer Coefficient

The single-phase heat transfer coefficient was determined from the measured fluid and heater block temperatures and the electrical power input using an analytical fin technique detailed by Qu and Mudawar (2003).

As shown in Figure I.4.1 and description in chapter I.4.1, equating the heat influx to the unit cell through the bottom solid wall to the heat efflux yields

$$q''(W_{ch} + 2W_w) = h_{sp}(T_w - T_m)(W_{ch} + 2\eta H_{ch}), \quad (\text{III.4.3})$$

where η is the fin efficiency. Since the top wall is adiabatic, the fin efficiency is given by

$$\eta = \frac{\tanh(m H_{ch})}{m H_{ch}}, \quad (\text{III.4.4})$$

where m is the fin parameter defined as

$$m = \sqrt{\frac{h_{sp}}{k_s W_w}}. \quad (\text{III.4.5})$$

These three equations yields the valued of single phase heat transfer coefficient h_{sp} . The corresponding error propagation from measurement uncertainties is estimated at 5.0 %. The fin base temperature, T_w , was calculated using the assumption of one-dimensional heat diffusion between the plane of the thermocouple embedded in the copper block and the plane containing the fin base.

$$T_w = T_{tc} - \frac{q'' H_{tc}}{k_s}. \quad (\text{III.4.6})$$

Figure III.4.2 shows the variation of the single-phase heat transfer coefficient along the flow direction for water and the two nanofluids for different power inputs. The four measurement locations correspond to the thermocouple layout shown earlier in Fig. III.3.2(b). The two upstream locations are well within the entrance region, while the third and the fourth indicate the flow is becoming thermally fully developed. The nanofluids exhibit the same spatial trend as that for pure water. Figures III.4.2(a) and 2(b) show similar trends for 1% and 2% Al_2O_3 , respectively, as compared to pure water.

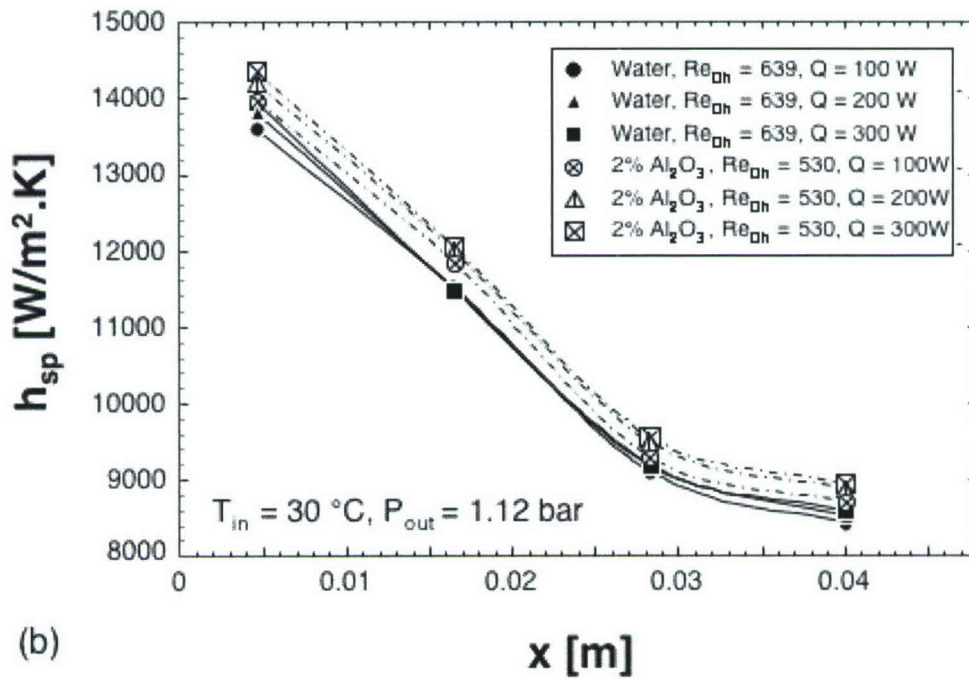
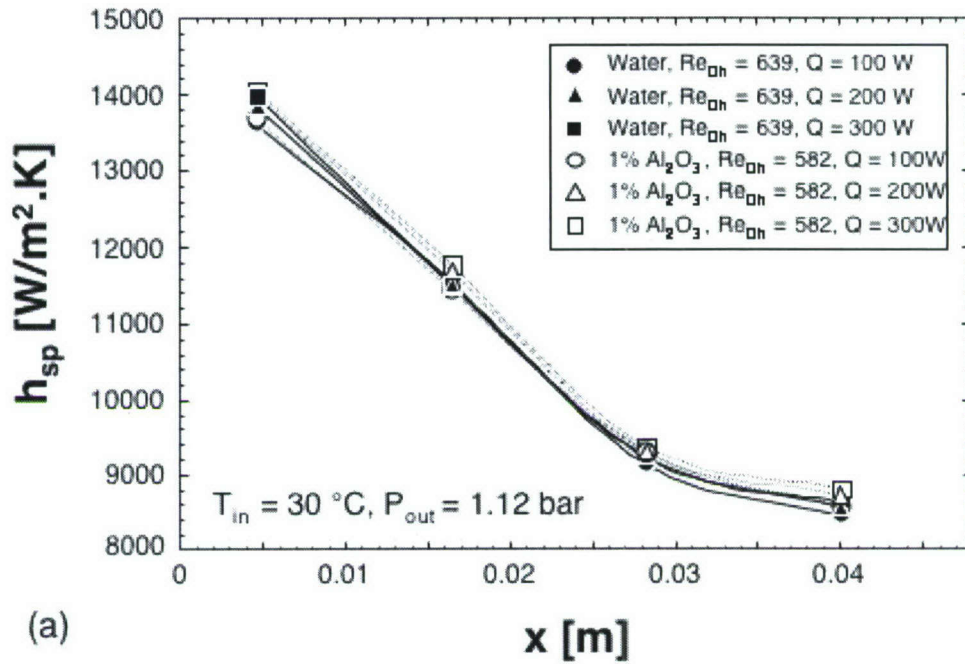


Figure III.4.2 Variation of heat transfer coefficient along micro-channel for (a) pure water and 1% Al_2O_3 , and (b) pure water and 2% Al_2O_3 .

In each of these figures, increasing the heat flux has a very weak effect on the heat transfer coefficient for pure water, but an appreciable effect for the nanofluid. Notice also the stronger effect of heat flux for 2% Al_2O_3 , Fig. III.4.2(b), compared to 1% Al_2O_3 , Fig. III.4.2(a).

Keblinski et al. (2002) suggested four possible mechanisms for heat transfer enhancement with nanofluids: Brownian motion, liquid layering at liquid/particle interface, phonon movement in nanoparticles, and nanoparticle clustering. While it is difficult to determine which of these four mechanisms has the greatest impact on enhancement, the increased dependence of the heat transfer enhancement on heat flux at higher concentrations may be one trend future research may rely upon in pursuit of mechanism identification. In any case, this increased dependence appears to alter boundary layer development for nanofluids.

Figure III.4.3 compares the heat transfer coefficient variation with Reynolds number for water, 1% Al_2O_3 and 2% Al_2O_3 for each of the four axial locations along the micro-channel heat sink. For each axial location, 2% Al_2O_3 shows the greatest heat transfer enhancement. For 1% Al_2O_3 , the enhancement is obvious for the first two upstream locations, but virtually nonexistent for the two downstream locations where the thermal boundary layer is almost fully developed. In fact, the enhancement effect for both concentrations appears far more prevalent in the entrance region than the downstream fully developed region. It can therefore be concluded that nanoparticles have an appreciable effect on thermal boundary layer development.

Interestingly, this trend is a general agreement with the findings of Wen and Ding (2004) for Al_2O_3 nanofluid flow inside a much larger tube ($D = 4.5 \text{ mm}$).

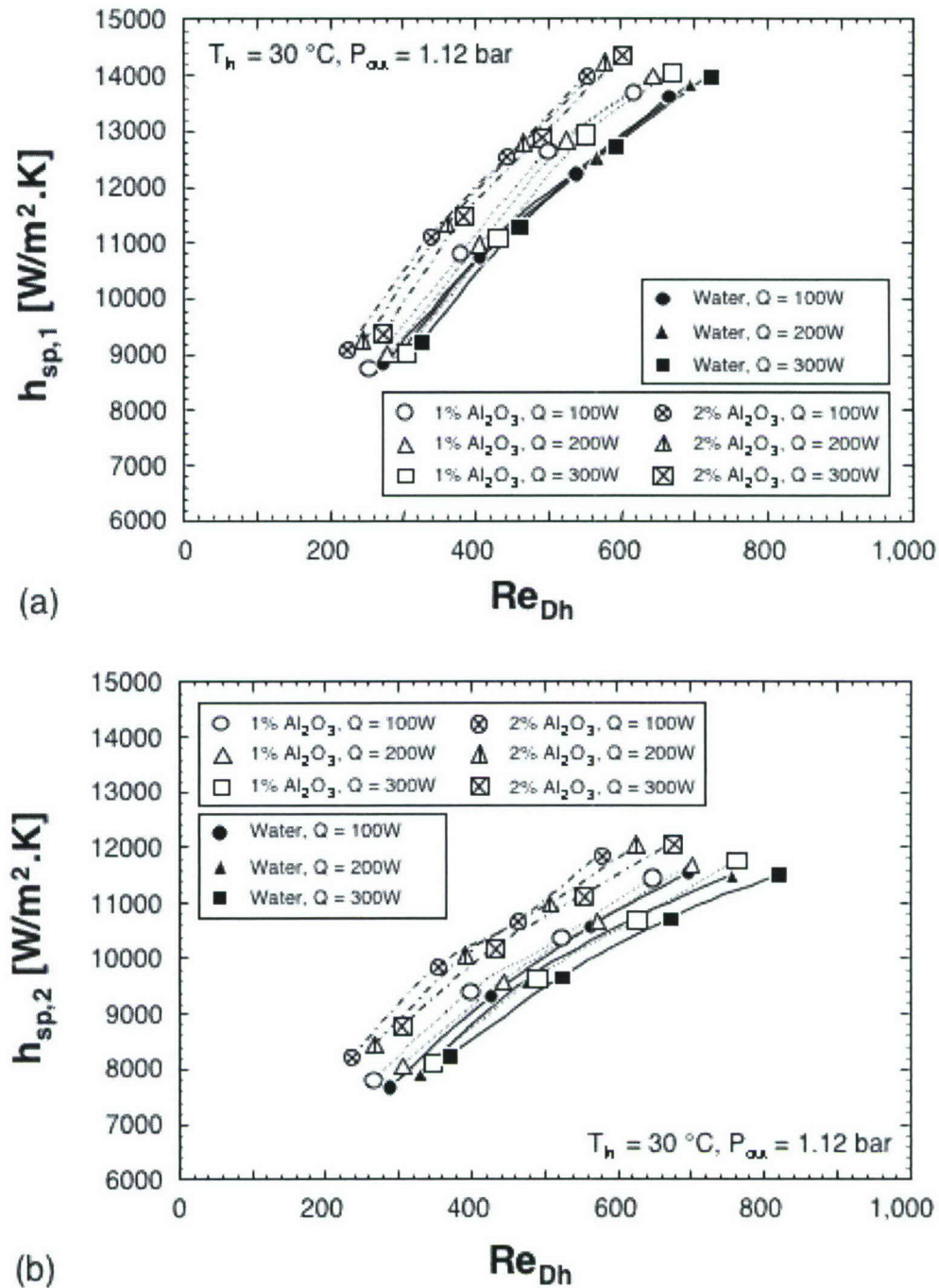
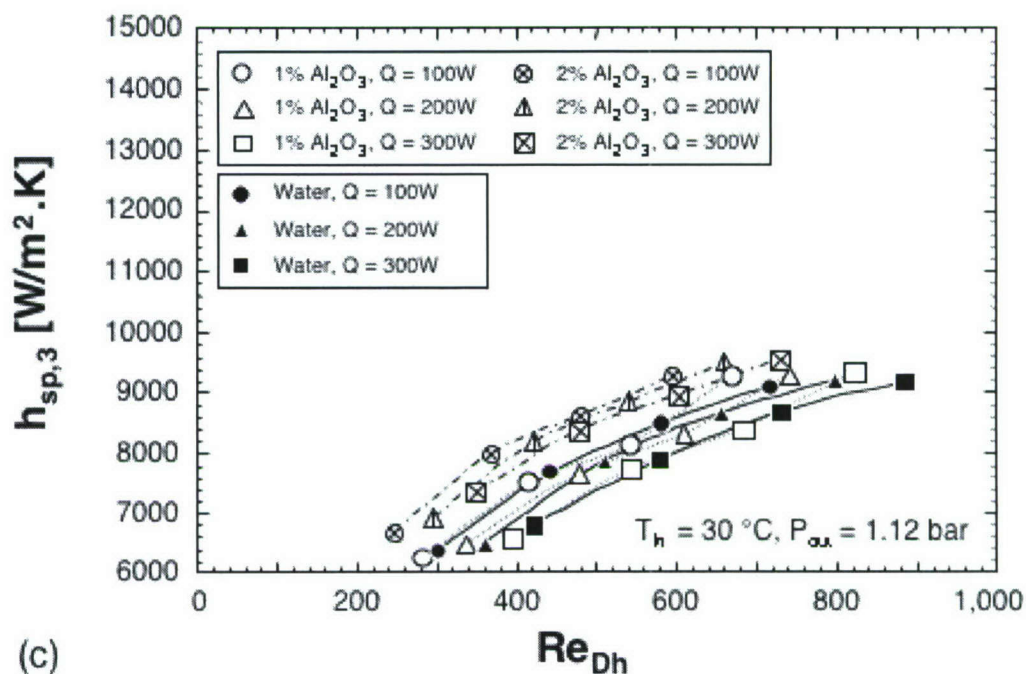
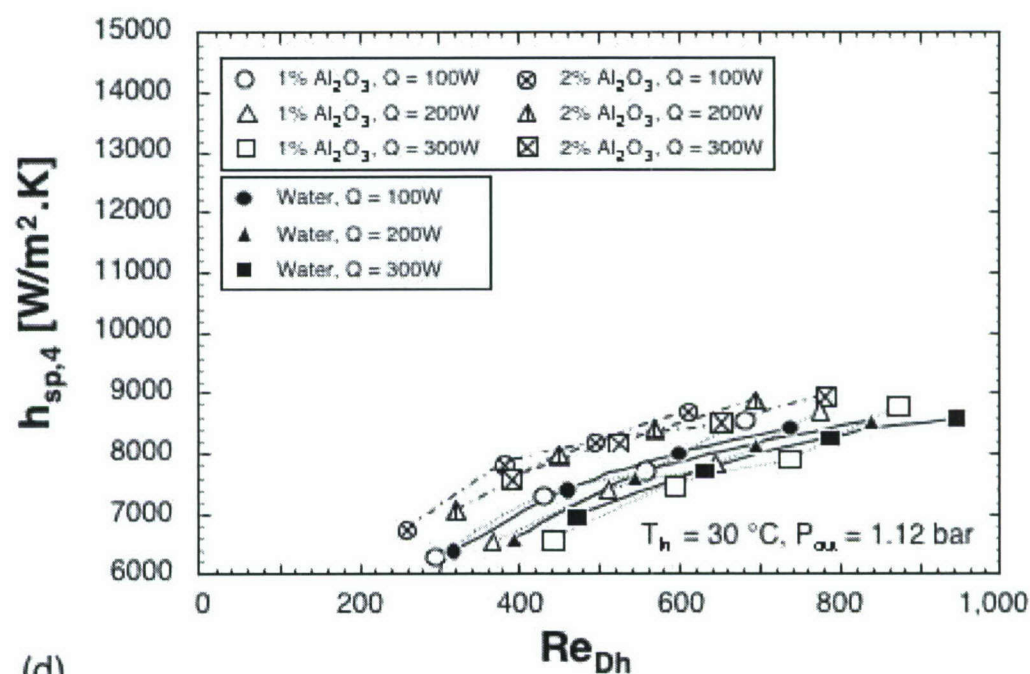


Figure III.4.3 Variation of heat transfer coefficient with Reynolds number for different heat inputs and different Al_2O_3 concentrations at measurement locations (a) tc1, (b) tc2, (c) tc3, and (d) tc4.



(c)



(d)

Figure III.4.3 continued.

III.4.3 Axial Variations of Fluid and Wall Temperatures

As discussed earlier, the thermal performance of a heat sink is dictated not only by the magnitude of the heat transfer coefficient, but by the wall temperature of the heat sink as well. Increasing nanoparticle concentration increases the fluid's thermal conductivity, thus increasing the heat transfer coefficient, especially for laminar flow. On the other hand, increased nanoparticle concentration also degrades specific heat, resulting in larger axial rises in both fluid and wall temperatures compared to the base fluid. Therefore, it is not immediately evident if the wall temperature actually decreases (a sign of better cooling performance) with increasing nanoparticle concentration as a result of the higher heat transfer coefficient, given this degradation in the nanofluid's specific heat.

Figure III.4.4 shows the measured variation of mean fluid temperature between the inlet and outlet of the micro-channel heat sink with mass flow rate. Shown is an increase in temperature difference with increased nanoparticle concentration due to the specific heat degradation. This effect is more pronounced for lower mass flow rates and higher heat fluxes.

Figure III.4.5 shows the net effect of increasing thermal conductivity and decreasing specific heat on the wall temperature, which is perhaps the most realistic measure of the effectiveness of a given cooling scheme. These wall temperatures were calculated using Eq. (III.4.6) with measured thermocouple data. The only noticeable decrease in wall temperature is realized near the inlet for the lower mass flow rate at the lower heat input. All other conditions and axial locations show virtually no measurable enhancement. Furthermore, any differences in the wall temperature are within the range of measurement uncertainty of the study, let alone the difficulty of achieving an exact flow rate when comparing different cases. These findings prove nanoparticles are not an effective means for enhancing single-phase cooling performance of a micro-channel heat sink.

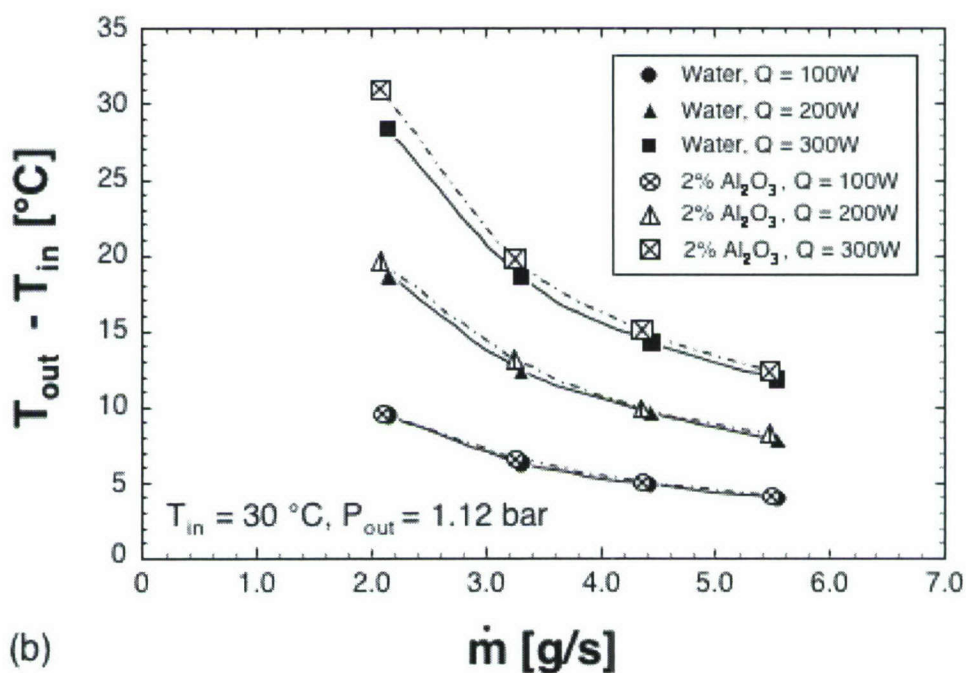
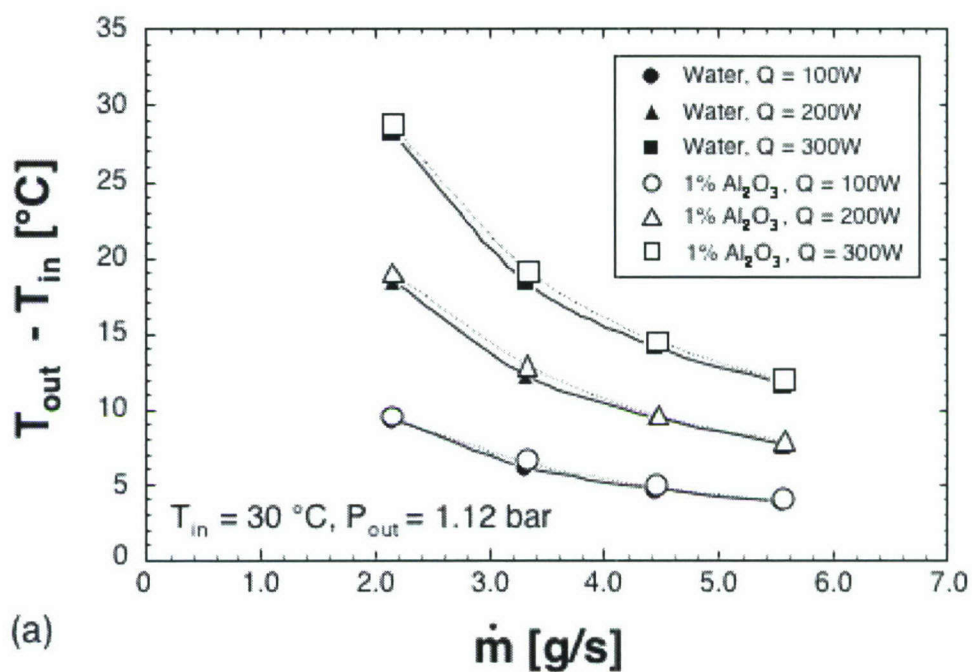


Figure III.4.4 Variation of fluid temperature rise along micro-channel for (a) pure water flow and 1% Al_2O_3 , and (b) pure water and 2% Al_2O_3 .

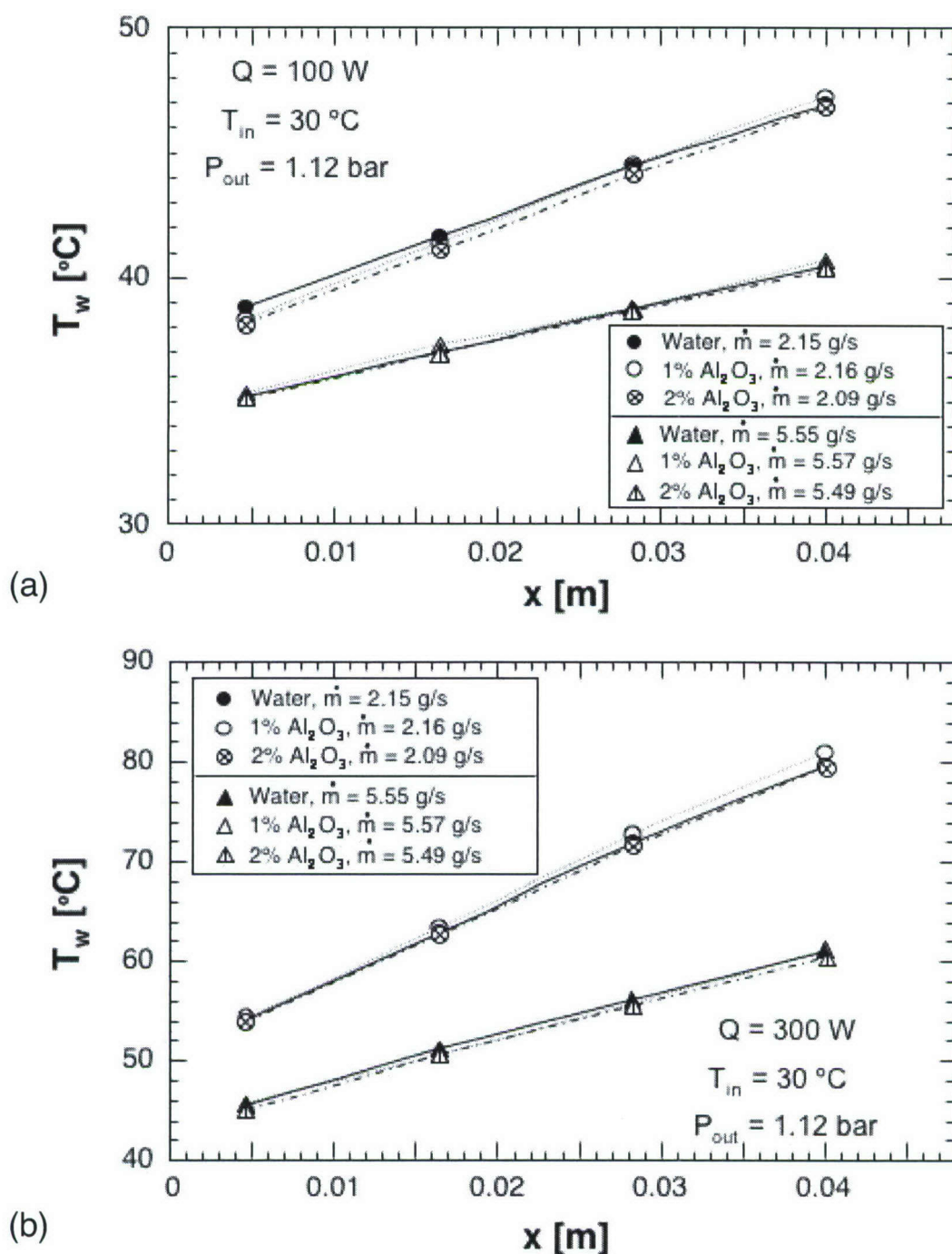


Figure III.4.5 Variation of wall temperature along micro-channel for different flow rates and Al_2O_3 concentrations and heat inputs of (a) 100 W and (b) 300 W.

III.4.4 Fluid Stability

Particle settlement is an obvious concern with solid particle suspensions that are intended for cooling applications. As mentioned earlier, nanoparticle suspensions are far more stable than suspensions of larger particles.

This issue was examined in the present study by repeating heat transfer coefficient measurements in tests that were separated by many hours. Figures III.4.6(a) and III.4.6(b) show these results for 2% Al_2O_3 for Reynolds numbers of 202 and 530, respectively. These results show fairly repeatable results over the indicated time span.

Another method of assessing nanofluid stability was to visually inspect fluid samples over an extended period of time. The samples were sealed in glass beaker for the entire period. Figure III.4.7 compares picture of 1% and 2% Al_2O_3 nanofluids taken shortly after initial mixing and 30 days later. The latter pictures show some settlement and a concentration gradient in both nanofluids. Such effects can cause long-term degradation in thermal performance due to settling inside the cooling system's reservoir. Furthermore, most cooling systems contain feedback control systems that attenuate coolant flow rate or stop it altogether in response to the fluctuating heat load of the device being cooled. Slow or zero flow rate accentuate nanoparticle settling and may even lead to clogging of individual components of the cooling loop. This issue points to the need for long-term testing of a nanofluid cooling loop before actual deployment.

Another long-term concern with nanofluids is surface abrasion. Like most metal surfaces, copper exhibits some oxidation when exposed to pure water. This effect was more pronounced with increasing surface temperature. The oxidize layer acts as an additional thermal resistance and tends to degrade the heat transfer performance. Interestingly, the micro-channel surface appeared cleaner and shinier following each single-phase experiment with the nanofluids. This phenomenon is believed to be the result of erosion of the copper surface by the nanoparticles. While this may seem an advantage for nanofluids, special attention must be paid to the possibility of the removed oxide be entrained with the flow, altering the enhancement effect of the nanoparticles, and contributing long term to particle settling or even clogging of flow passages.

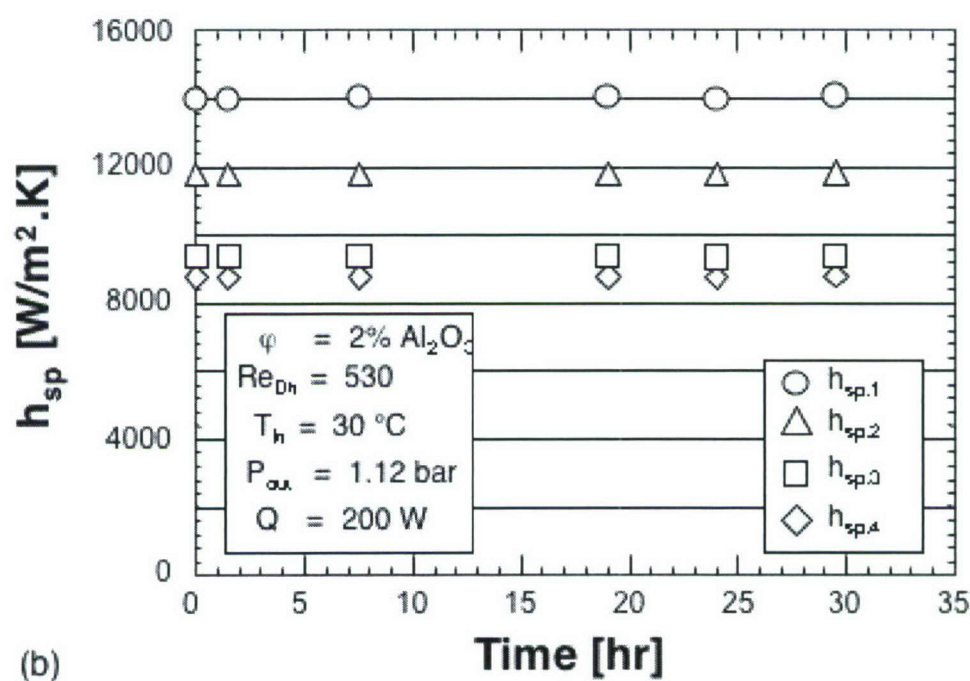
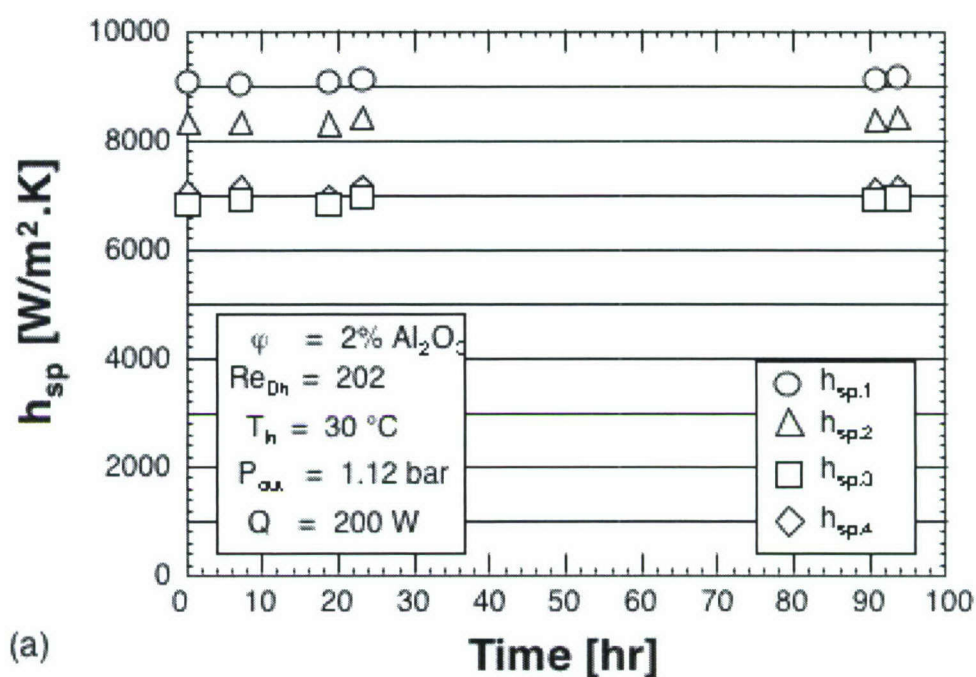


Figure III.4.6 Heat transfer coefficient versus time for 2% Al_2O_3 and Reynolds numbers of (a) 202 and (b) 530.

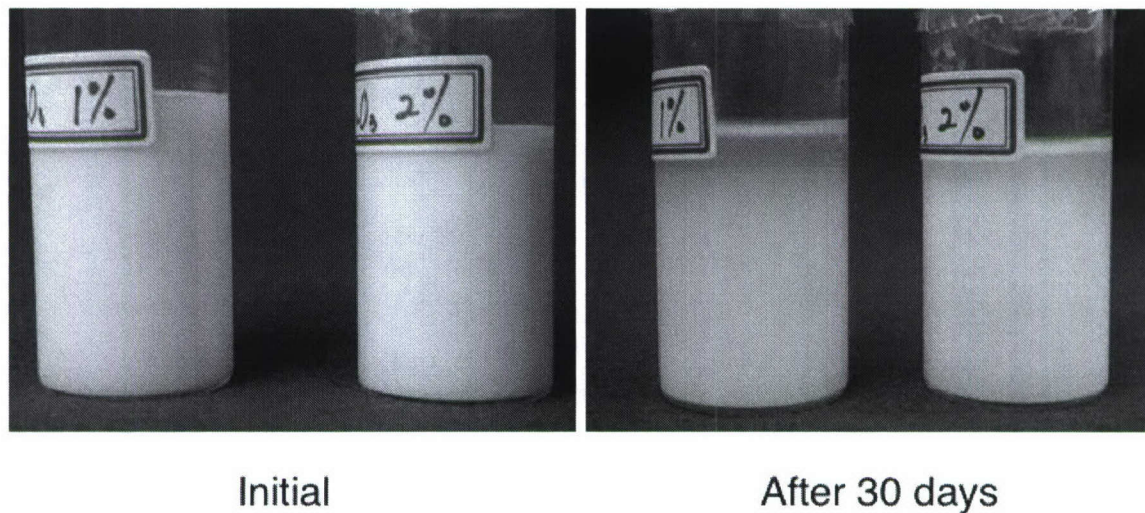


Figure III.4.7 Nanofluid settling over 30 day period.

III.5 FLOW BOILING RESULTS

Flow boiling can greatly enhance the cooling performance of a micro-channel heat sink by increasing the heat transfer coefficient. Furthermore, since flow boiling relies to a great degree on latent heat transfer, better temperature axial uniformity is realized both in the coolant and the wall compared to a single-phase heat sink. The question here is whether nanoparticles could further enhance an already superior performance.

Recently, several research articles examined the effects of nanoparticles on pool boiling [Das et al. (2003), Bang and Chang (2005), Vassallo et al. (2004)]. Degradation in nucleate boiling performance was related to surface smoothing, resulting from bubble-generated cavity filling with particles and particle deposition on the heating surface. However, nanofluids netted a measurable increase in critical heat flux (CHF).

In this research, flow boiling experiments were conducted with the micro-channel heat sink using pure water and 1% Al_2O_3 . Figure III.5.1(a) shows the data for pure water follow a typical boiling curve. This curve is initiated at low heat fluxes with single-phase forced convection, followed by an appreciable slope change following the onset of boiling, and culminating in a sudden unsteady temperature rise at CHF. While single-phase forced convection proceeded in the same manner with increasing heat flux for 1% Al_2O_3 , flow boiling was never achieved with this nanofluid. It appears fluid evaporation associated with the initial incipience of boiling near the channel exit caused rapid deposition of nanoparticles in the same region. Despite the small size of these particles, the deposition rate was so severe that relatively large particle clusters could be seen near the exit. This clustering effect quickly propagated upstream and filled the entire channel, preventing the coolant from entering the heat sink. The heat sink

responded with a sudden unsteady temperature rise. This phenomenon constitutes a catastrophic failure for a cooling system. Figure III.5.1(b) shows photos of the deposited particles after they were removed by a fine needle.

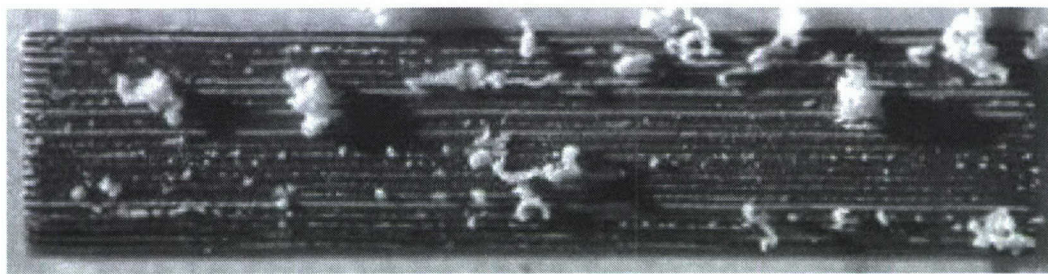
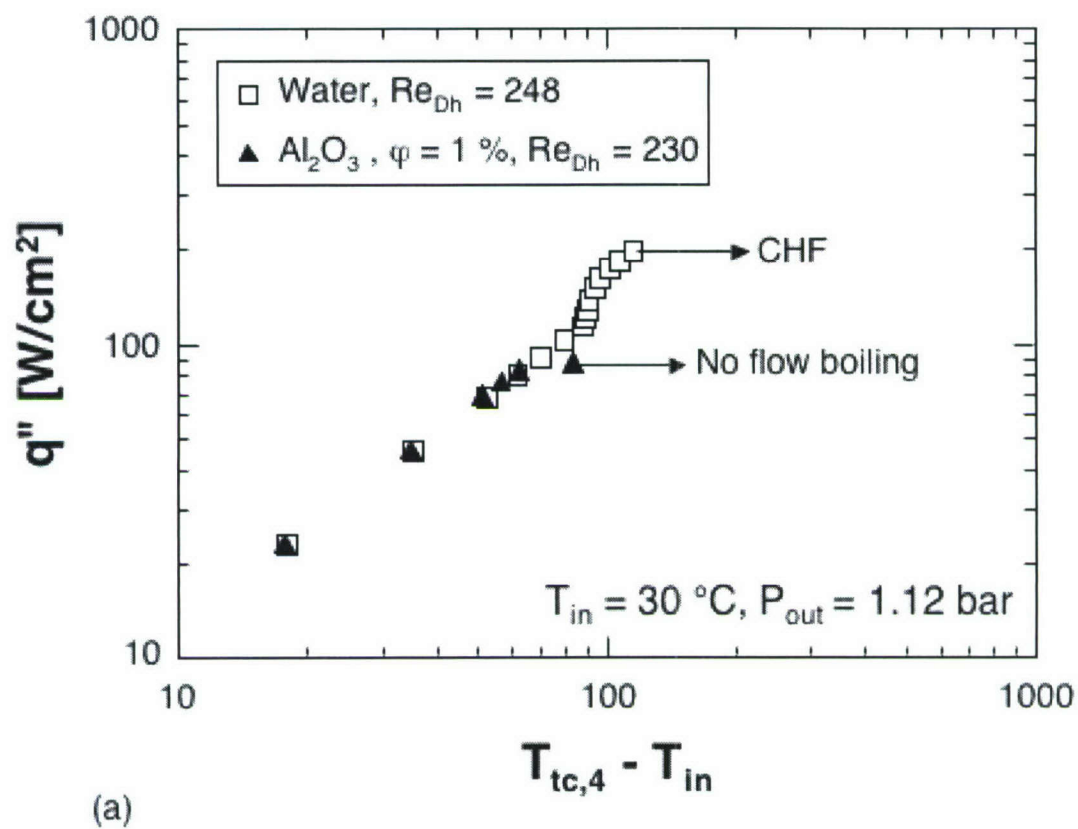


Figure III.5.1 (a) Flow boiling curve at measurement location tc4 for pure water and 1% Al_2O_3 . (b) Photo of particles after being removed from micro-channels.

III.6 CONCLUSIONS

This study is an assessment of the effectiveness of Al_2O_3 nanoparticles at enhancing single-phase and two-phase heat transfer in micro-channel heat sinks. Key conclusions can be summarized as follows:

- (1) The high thermal conductivity of nanoparticles relative to common pure fluids enhances the single-phase heat transfer coefficient for fully-developed laminar flow. The enhancement is far weaker for turbulent flow because of a weaker dependence of the heat transfer coefficient on thermal conductivity as well as decreased specific heat and increased viscosity with increased nanoparticle concentration.
- (2) Increasing nanoparticle concentration increases single-phase pressure drop appreciably compared to pure fluids at the same Reynolds number.
- (3) Higher single-phase heat transfer coefficients are achieved in the entrance region of micro-channels with increased nanoparticle concentration. However, the enhancement is weaker in the fully developed region, proving that nanoparticles have an appreciable effect on thermal boundary layer development. Higher concentrations also produce greater sensitivity to heat flux.
- (4) Despite their ability to enhance the single-phase heat transfer coefficient due to the increased thermal conductivity, the overall cooling effectiveness of nanoparticles is quite miniscule. Simultaneous degradation of the specific heat leads to larger fluid temperature rise along the micro-channel. The net effect of increasing thermal conductivity and decreasing specific heat on wall temperature is virtually nonexistent.
- (5) Single-phase cooling performance with nanofluids is quite repeatable over extended durations. However, very long-term use may lead to particle settling and potential clogging of flow passages. This issue must be carefully examined by long term testing

of the entire cooling system, including variations of, or complete stoppage of the coolant flow rate, before deployment. Nanoparticles also cause erosion to metal surfaces and, while this may help maintain surface texture, the removed oxide may ultimately alter the enhancement effect of nanoparticles, accentuate settling, or even clog flow passages.

(6) Nanoparticles should not be used in two-phase micro-channel heat sinks. Once boiling commences, particles begin to deposit into relatively large clusters near the channel exit due to localized evaporation. This clustering phenomenon quickly propagates upstream to fill the entire channel, preventing coolant from entering the heat sink and causing catastrophic failure of the cooling system.

Table III.6.1 summarizes the practical implications from the present study. While this study does demonstrate the effectiveness of nanoparticles at enhancing the single-phase heat transfer coefficient by increasing the nanofluids thermal conductivity, it also shows only a miniscule enhancement in cooling effectiveness compared to the pure fluid, and reveals several important disadvantages. These disadvantages bring into question the overall merit of using nanofluids in micro-channel heat sinks. A far more effective strategy is to simply optimize micro-channel geometry in pursuit of a higher heat transfer coefficient and lower pressure drop using pure fluids [Qu and Mudawar (2005)].

Table III.6.1. Advantages and disadvantages of nanofluids.

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Higher single-phase heat transfer coefficient, especially for laminar flow, due to increased thermal conductivity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increased axial rise in wall temperature due to degraded specific heat - Increase pumping power due to greater pressure drop - Long-term fluid settling and potential clogging of flow passages - Possible damage to flow loop parts by erosion - Inability to sustain flow boiling - High cost of nanoparticle suspensions

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APPENENDICES

Appendix A – Comparison present study with Qu and Mudawar's (2003).

Table A.1 Comparison of properties of R134a and water and respective experimental parameters.

Fluids		R134a [present study]		Water [Qu and Mudawar (2003)]
Properties		$P_{\text{sat,Low}}$ [Pa]	$P_{\text{sat,High}}$ [Pa]	P_{sat} [Pa]
		144,750	659,650	115,000
	T_{sat} [C]	-17.99	24.69	103.6
	ρ_f [kg/m ³]	1352.1	1207.9	955.8
	ρ_g [kg/m ³]	7.365	32.07	0.6721
	h_{fg} [kJ/kg]	211.5	178.1	2247.2
	μ_f [kg/m-s]	3.37E-4	1.95E-4	2.72E-4
	μ_g [kg/m-s]	1.02E-5	1.195E-5	1.239E-5
	ν_f [m ² /s]	2.490E-7	1.615E-7	2.842E-7
	ν_g [m ² /s]	13.84E-7	3.727E-7	184.4E-7
	σ [N/m]	0.01421	0.008123	0.05822
	$c_{p,f}$ [J/kg-K]	1297.3	1423.2	4222.1
	k_f [W/m-K]	0.102	0.0834	0.6661
	Pr_f	4.283	3.33	1.722
	Pr_g	0.812	0.844	1.0
Experiment Conditions	q'' [W/cm ²]	15.7 ~ 93.9		18.2 ~ 239.8
	G [kg/m ² -s]	128.16 ~ 656.72		134.9 ~ 402.7
	x_e	0.001 ~ super heat (1.360)		Subcooled ~ 0.255
	d_h [μ m]	349		

Appendix B – Direct Refrigeration Cooling Experimental Data

This appendix includes all experimental data obtained in the present study. Nomenclature used in the data tables are as following:

Symbols

A	Direct current ampere applied to the compressor
COM	Compressor
CON	Condenser
DP	Pressure drop
EVA	Evaporator heat sink
G	Mass velocity [$\text{kg}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$]
In	Inlet
Out	Outlet
Q	Total heat transfer rate to the copper heat sink [W]
Q_v	Volumetric flow rate at evaporator inlet [ml/min]
q''	Heat flux through the heat sink base surface [W/cm^2]
$Temp$	Temperature
T_{amb}	Surrounding temperature
T_c	Heat sink block temperature
V	Electric voltage applied to the compressor
x_e	Thermodynamic equilibrium quality

Table B.1 $q''=15.70 - 16.01 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q'' [W/cm ²]	COM Power		Q _v [ml/min]	G [kg/m ² s]	x _e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
		V	A			COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP		
101.1	15.83	12.75	7.000	101.36	235.39	0.1249	0.3803	5.349	25.893	23.384	5.920	5.728	12.080	23.314	6.712E+05	6.611E+05	3.562E+05	3670.2
101.2	15.84	12.70	7.020	91.95	213.64	0.1246	0.4058	5.278	26.295	23.238	5.814	5.642	11.958	23.309	6.794E+05	6.714E+05	3.548E+05	3487.1
101.2	15.84	12.70	6.980	85.72	199.18	0.1255	0.4267	5.164	26.452	23.239	5.678	5.520	11.788	23.364	6.805E+05	6.730E+05	3.527E+05	3332.2
101.8	15.93	12.73	6.970	79.50	184.80	0.1260	0.4521	4.950	26.431	23.097	5.435	5.302	11.556	23.335	6.808E+05	6.738E+05	3.501E+05	3186.1
101.8	15.94	12.70	6.835	70.22	163.38	0.1263	0.4943	4.647	26.414	22.795	5.065	4.990	11.265	23.376	6.799E+05	6.740E+05	3.447E+05	2757.0
102.0	15.96	12.80	6.410	54.98	128.16	0.1314	0.5983	3.253	26.406	22.209	3.597	3.552	9.970	23.355	6.785E+05	6.740E+05	3.285E+05	2287.6
101.3	15.85	12.77	6.490	44.07	102.72	0.1393	0.7149	2.077	26.497	22.252	2.403	2.373	8.864	23.340	6.786E+05	6.750E+05	3.135E+05	2154.0
101.3	15.86	12.88	6.350	38.87	90.63	0.1493	0.7978	0.340	26.353	22.157	0.697	0.656	7.227	23.362	6.783E+05	6.752E+05	2.887E+05	2137.1
102.0	15.96	12.58	5.065	36.40	85.01	0.2231	0.8878	-12.249	28.435	21.655	-12.453	-12.856	-1.245	23.441	6.744E+05	6.720E+05	1.774E+05	2719.2
102.3	16.01	12.55	5.205	33.96	79.33	0.2318	0.9420	-11.869	31.567	21.573	-14.144	-14.562	-1.519	23.437	6.729E+05	6.706E+05	1.675E+05	2785.3
100.9	15.79	12.55	5.190	31.44	73.45	0.2375	0.9910	-11.262	34.784	21.506	-15.260	-15.663	-1.682	23.460	6.724E+05	6.701E+05	1.609E+05	2783.8
100.5	15.73	12.56	5.125	28.79	67.25	0.2434	1.0600	-5.361	37.577	21.484	-16.384	-16.712	-0.766	23.440	6.716E+05	6.695E+05	1.535E+05	2739.3
100.3	15.70	12.59	5.035	25.96	60.66	0.2508	1.1230	3.859	40.682	21.430	-17.824	-7.415	1.344	23.449	6.694E+05	6.674E+05	1.448E+05	2725.0

Table B.2 $q''=23.52 - 23.96 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q"	COM Power		Q _v	G	x _e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
[W]	[W/cm ²]	V	A	[ml/min]	[kg/m ² s]	In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
151.6	23.73	12.68	7.120	117.19	271.60	0.1099	0.4456	8.338	26.695	24.065	8.956	8.767	17.762	23.539	6.889E+05	6.784E+05	3.950E+05	4515.2
151.5	23.72	12.76	6.980	101.48	235.29	0.1129	0.4989	7.774	26.720	23.918	8.351	8.194	17.284	23.573	6.886E+05	6.796E+05	3.871E+05	4043.1
152.0	23.80	12.79	6.810	85.82	199.13	0.1145	0.5707	7.383	26.889	23.691	7.862	7.754	16.965	23.602	6.899E+05	6.825E+05	3.808E+05	3468.4
150.2	23.52	12.90	6.535	70.31	163.36	0.1178	0.6647	6.517	27.227	23.286	6.913	6.862	16.415	23.646	6.979E+05	6.923E+05	3.699E+05	2768.1
151.9	23.78	12.85	6.385	55.10	128.18	0.1362	0.8318	3.181	27.035	22.909	3.643	3.556	14.841	23.693	6.964E+05	6.923E+05	3.291E+05	2441.4
152.3	23.84	12.52	5.505	44.08	102.72	0.2052	1.0370	-7.420	34.845	22.345	-8.451	-8.634	8.851	23.740	6.933E+05	6.903E+05	2.114E+05	3249.4
152.3	23.84	12.46	5.525	41.37	96.42	0.2082	1.0930	-5.358	39.038	22.282	-9.063	-9.252	9.236	23.746	6.905E+05	6.878E+05	2.055E+05	3264.0
153.1	23.96	12.49	5.480	38.89	90.63	0.2145	1.1560	3.516	42.525	22.320	-10.108	-10.176	10.751	23.760	6.892E+05	6.866E+05	1.979E+05	3240.0
151.4	23.70	12.49	5.425	36.47	85.01	0.2201	1.2070	7.387	44.767	22.272	-11.161	-10.089	13.855	23.747	6.890E+05	6.865E+05	1.905E+05	3256.0
151.6	23.73	12.57	5.360	34.03	79.33	0.2244	1.2660	16.405	49.552	22.241	-11.967	-3.590	27.186	23.765	6.888E+05	6.864E+05	1.839E+05	3278.1
152.4	23.86	12.59	5.270	31.51	73.45	0.2292	1.3480	19.479	50.387	22.235	-12.836	4.124	38.658	23.766	6.873E+05	6.850E+05	1.772E+05	3287.5

Table B.3 $q''=31.47 - 31.78 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q''	COM Power		Q _v	G	x _g		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]					
		V	A			[ml/min]	[kg/m ² s]	In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In
201.0	31.47	12.77	6.930	148.53	343.81	0.0952	0.4516	10.748	27.026	24.448	11.556	11.213	21.997	23.632	6.954E+05	6.821E+05	4.306E+05		7007.6
202.4	31.69	12.76	6.900	132.92	307.79	0.0969	0.4965	10.456	27.204	24.343	11.204	10.909	21.796	23.636	6.989E+05	6.870E+05	4.255E+05		6271.2
203.0	31.78	12.81	6.760	117.25	271.54	0.1002	0.5529	10.022	27.304	24.306	10.683	10.449	21.585	23.692	6.992E+05	6.887E+05	4.182E+05		5536.2
202.6	31.72	12.77	6.670	101.59	235.20	0.1022	0.6229	9.976	27.776	24.415	10.503	10.346	21.729	23.720	7.075E+05	6.987E+05	4.156E+05		4690.6
202.6	31.72	12.87	6.505	85.89	199.08	0.1049	0.7174	9.273	27.719	24.047	9.702	9.612	21.679	23.733	7.067E+05	6.996E+05	4.058E+05		3893.3
201.8	31.59	12.51	6.300	70.34	163.35	0.1164	0.8523	6.903	27.768	23.481	7.343	7.275	21.830	23.759	7.045E+05	6.993E+05	3.739E+05		3071.1
201.9	31.61	12.54	5.595	55.03	128.16	0.1853	1.0800	3.276	33.966	22.518	-4.814	-4.756	20.164	23.779	6.973E+05	6.937E+05	2.409E+05		3871.8

Table B.4 $q''=39.03 - 39.50 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q [W]	q'' [W/cm ²]	COM Power		Q _v [ml/min]	G [kg/m ² s]	x _g		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
		V	A			In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
250.2	39.17	12.75	7.045	179.41	414.92	0.0783	0.4509	13.334	27.377	24.727	14.298	13.843	26.185	23.352	7.057E+05	6.889E+05	4.691E+05	9466.3
251.5	39.38	12.68	6.880	164.06	379.50	0.0805	0.4886	13.025	27.377	24.660	13.915	13.510	26.096	23.408	7.043E+05	6.890E+05	4.647E+05	8626.2
250.9	39.27	12.72	6.725	148.57	343.77	0.0832	0.5311	12.621	27.430	24.579	13.436	13.090	25.718	23.457	7.053E+05	6.916E+05	4.579E+05	7703.8
251.0	39.29	12.72	6.680	132.99	307.73	0.0857	0.5849	12.327	27.650	24.578	13.076	12.785	25.587	23.535	7.082E+05	6.961E+05	4.525E+05	6925.0
250.8	39.27	12.76	6.645	117.38	271.42	0.0886	0.6531	12.311	28.282	24.822	12.935	12.731	26.023	23.566	7.223E+05	7.119E+05	4.515E+05	5942.5
250.3	39.18	12.80	6.565	101.68	235.13	0.0913	0.7399	12.033	28.481	24.812	12.523	12.388	26.398	23.628	7.233E+05	7.145E+05	4.446E+05	4988.1
249.3	39.03	12.88	6.330	86.00	199.02	0.0978	0.8568	10.914	28.565	24.565	11.306	11.240	27.558	23.680	7.232E+05	7.160E+05	4.291E+05	4043.1
252.3	39.50	12.46	5.885	70.41	163.33	0.1625	1.0580	0.319	40.949	23.846	0.516	0.540	27.243	23.791	7.214E+05	7.164E+05	2.940E+05	4496.6
251.1	39.30	12.50	5.825	58.19	135.17	0.1748	1.2360	21.345	48.643	23.382	-2.035	0.356	56.096	23.867	7.150E+05	7.111E+05	2.667E+05	4505.9

Table B.5 $q''=46.87 - 47.19 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q [W]	q'' [W/cm ²]	COM Power		Q_v [ml/min]	G [kg/m ² s]	x_e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]			
		V	A			In	Out	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
299.4	46.87	12.55	6.740	209.37	485.32	0.0589	0.4441	26.569	23.987	16.218	15.606	29.528	21.942	6.893E+05	6.681E+05	4.985E+05	12364.8
300.0	46.96	12.60	6.600	194.24	450.53	0.0606	0.4750	26.582	23.790	15.765	15.215	29.270	21.975	6.875E+05	6.682E+05	4.921E+05	11394.5
301.4	47.19	12.63	6.515	178.99	415.44	0.0627	0.5124	26.504	23.584	15.257	14.769	28.928	22.025	6.856E+05	6.680E+05	4.848E+05	10481.2
301.3	47.16	12.61	6.585	163.69	379.95	0.0637	0.5542	26.559	23.563	15.097	14.670	28.979	22.028	6.860E+05	6.698E+05	4.814E+05	9595.9
300.5	47.05	12.59	6.475	148.22	344.17	0.0668	0.6049	26.515	23.448	14.555	14.202	28.440	22.058	6.849E+05	6.703E+05	4.732E+05	8677.1
301.2	47.16	12.63	6.330	132.64	308.10	0.0699	0.6702	26.536	23.326	13.995	13.728	28.634	22.087	6.843E+05	6.717E+05	4.660E+05	7479.3
300.7	47.07	12.70	6.115	116.96	271.82	0.0719	0.7493	26.505	23.193	13.545	13.345	29.047	22.100	6.823E+05	6.714E+05	4.593E+05	6328.8
300.2	47.00	12.77	5.885	101.29	235.44	0.0754	0.8538	26.555	23.108	12.970	12.851	30.252	22.166	6.816E+05	6.723E+05	4.505E+05	5208.2
301.0	47.12	12.53	5.570	85.62	199.24	0.0876	1.0010	26.088	22.785	10.872	10.669	37.305	22.228	6.809E+05	6.741E+05	4.207E+05	4099.5
301.2	47.16	12.49	5.715	76.26	177.70	0.1322	1.1270	37.173	22.346	3.628	3.533	34.794	22.260	6.782E+05	6.724E+05	3.281E+05	4927.4

Table B.6 $q''=54.59 - 55.09 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q''	COM Power		Q _v	G	x _e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]						
		V	A			[ml/min]	[kg/m ² s]	In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
350.3	54.84	12.41	6.725	239.36	554.20	0.043	0.443	17.479	27.255	24.360	18.763	18.063	33.749	22.263	7.058E+05	6.807E+05	5.407E+05	14664.5		
351.4	55.02	12.53	6.570	224.50	519.74	0.047	0.473	17.110	27.307	24.397	18.335	17.685	33.620	22.300	7.054E+05	6.824E+05	5.344E+05	13617.0		
350.3	54.84	12.53	6.520	209.48	485.18	0.048	0.502	16.805	27.209	24.261	17.969	17.369	33.306	22.299	7.043E+05	6.826E+05	5.284E+05	12901.0		
349.4	54.70	12.50	6.600	194.41	450.30	0.050	0.536	16.652	27.245	24.247	17.728	17.194	33.077	22.348	7.029E+05	6.831E+05	5.245E+05	11822.8		
350.0	54.80	12.54	6.535	179.19	415.20	0.052	0.579	16.362	27.260	24.135	17.342	16.890	32.895	22.371	7.018E+05	6.837E+05	5.168E+05	10821.2		
349.3	54.69	12.61	6.355	163.86	379.74	0.055	0.628	15.877	27.227	24.080	16.793	16.392	32.708	22.386	7.008E+05	6.842E+05	5.086E+05	9866.1		
348.7	54.59	12.65	6.195	148.36	344.01	0.058	0.687	15.494	27.186	23.922	16.296	15.983	32.689	22.423	6.993E+05	6.846E+05	5.016E+05	8778.7		
349.1	54.66	12.72	5.980	132.77	307.96	0.060	0.762	15.257	27.158	23.822	15.923	15.698	32.955	22.457	6.962E+05	6.834E+05	4.953E+05	7484.2		
352.1	55.13	12.78	5.785	117.11	271.68	0.062	0.863	14.997	27.231	23.771	15.520	15.379	34.866	22.471	6.956E+05	6.844E+05	4.885E+05	6188.8		
351.4	55.02	12.71	5.610	101.39	235.36	0.068	0.985	14.105	27.108	23.549	14.540	14.425	38.427	22.491	6.931E+05	6.838E+05	4.744E+05	4982.1		
351.9	55.09	12.63	5.760	85.66	199.22	0.117	1.166	11.021	36.195	22.962	6.667	6.474	46.296	22.470	6.901E+05	6.834E+05	3.698E+05	5548.2		

Table B.7 $q''=62.43 - 62.86 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q'' [W/cm ²]	COM Power		Q _v [ml/min]	G [kg/m ² s]	x _e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
		V	A			In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
400.1	62.63	12.59	6.980	268.94	622.59	0.0301	0.4407	19.101	27.286	24.414	20.551	19.731	36.979	22.012	7.087E+05	6.792E+05	5.711E+05	17457.0
399.5	62.54	12.56	7.065	254.25	588.35	0.0314	0.4646	19.125	27.356	24.538	20.508	19.740	36.969	22.060	7.080E+05	6.801E+05	5.698E+05	16583.6
399.3	62.51	12.61	6.760	239.37	554.18	0.0346	0.4923	18.611	27.282	24.385	19.934	19.223	36.576	22.057	7.068E+05	6.807E+05	5.602E+05	15648.5
400.4	62.68	12.70	6.580	224.50	519.74	0.0373	0.5251	18.330	27.329	24.400	19.578	18.936	36.519	22.070	7.067E+05	6.826E+05	5.557E+05	14609.5
400.0	62.62	12.74	6.455	209.49	485.17	0.0392	0.5598	18.015	27.309	24.278	19.203	18.607	36.435	22.109	7.054E+05	6.828E+05	5.495E+05	13668.4
399.1	62.48	12.73	6.360	194.42	450.29	0.0413	0.5996	17.829	27.346	24.282	18.931	18.403	36.041	22.114	7.032E+05	6.824E+05	5.428E+05	12611.2
401.1	62.80	12.79	6.235	179.17	415.22	0.0423	0.6491	17.575	27.264	24.091	18.588	18.136	36.113	22.144	7.021E+05	6.830E+05	5.375E+05	11461.9
401.0	62.78	12.82	6.130	163.80	379.81	0.0441	0.7054	17.256	27.200	23.922	18.170	17.790	36.367	22.146	7.002E+05	6.830E+05	5.318E+05	10227.9
401.5	62.86	12.51	5.965	148.33	344.04	0.0447	0.7744	17.222	27.207	23.821	17.992	17.692	36.869	22.137	6.983E+05	6.830E+05	5.279E+05	9004.8
400.6	62.72	12.65	5.660	132.73	308.00	0.0481	0.8584	16.758	27.188	23.669	17.367	17.178	38.076	22.138	6.955E+05	6.822E+05	5.181E+05	7466.7
399.8	62.59	12.72	5.490	117.03	271.76	0.0523	0.9649	16.029	27.055	23.440	16.550	16.388	41.514	22.139	6.934E+05	6.821E+05	5.069E+05	6279.9
400.3	62.67	12.44	5.550	104.44	242.70	0.0736	1.0820	12.552	26.644	23.231	13.346	13.031	48.707	22.105	6.924E+05	6.834E+05	4.550E+05	5685.9
398.8	62.43	12.38	5.765	91.84	213.71	0.1030	1.2210	20.919	33.316	22.774	8.565	8.290	66.232	22.117	6.822E+05	6.751E+05	3.895E+05	6089.6

Table B.8 $q''=70.34 - 70.83 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q'' [W/cm ²]	COM Power		Q _v [ml/min]	G [kg/m ² s]	x _g		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
		V	A			COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP		
452.4	70.83	12.44	6.640	283.55	656.72	0.0161	0.4599	20.686	27.239	24.265	22.216	21.333	40.003	21.299	7.102E+05	6.775E+05	6.027E+05	20112.6
449.3	70.34	12.48	6.570	268.81	622.77	0.0175	0.4812	20.451	27.348	24.177	21.948	21.094	39.707	21.390	7.129E+05	6.820E+05	5.975E+05	19051.9
451.3	70.65	12.49	6.600	254.13	588.53	0.0206	0.5120	20.261	27.483	24.295	21.682	20.884	39.852	21.474	7.130E+05	6.840E+05	5.936E+05	17957.0
451.5	70.68	12.51	6.370	239.35	554.21	0.0234	0.5439	20.028	27.482	24.347	21.364	20.651	39.780	21.507	7.128E+05	6.854E+05	5.869E+05	16804.1
452.2	70.80	12.58	6.215	224.45	519.80	0.0256	0.5798	19.763	27.553	24.300	21.020	20.375	39.702	21.576	7.105E+05	6.849E+05	5.802E+05	15654.2
451.9	70.74	12.46	6.045	209.40	485.28	0.0269	0.6183	19.448	27.397	24.083	20.628	20.049	39.532	21.608	7.072E+05	6.833E+05	5.732E+05	14563.1
451.7	70.71	12.49	6.015	194.27	450.48	0.0280	0.6631	19.225	27.303	23.900	20.299	19.800	39.526	21.663	7.049E+05	6.830E+05	5.676E+05	13212.1
451.5	70.68	12.49	5.875	179.09	415.31	0.0303	0.7172	18.981	27.287	23.878	19.977	19.537	39.676	21.664	7.032E+05	6.832E+05	5.620E+05	11975.5
451.3	70.66	12.64	5.615	163.75	379.88	0.0315	0.7805	18.876	27.236	23.756	19.689	19.353	40.260	21.680	7.018E+05	6.840E+05	5.579E+05	10457.3
451.0	70.61	12.63	5.480	148.30	344.08	0.0335	0.8581	18.684	27.308	23.721	19.393	19.139	41.322	21.716	7.008E+05	6.848E+05	5.520E+05	9128.8
450.7	70.55	12.69	5.325	132.71	308.02	0.0372	0.9545	18.205	27.249	23.604	18.771	18.577	43.879	21.724	6.998E+05	6.858E+05	5.431E+05	7722.5
450.6	70.55	12.68	5.130	118.64	275.35	0.0422	1.0650	17.394	26.900	23.645	18.140	17.833	52.570	21.810	6.995E+05	6.881E+05	5.320E+05	5882.4
451.5	70.68	12.47	5.850	102.84	239.09	0.0824	1.2300	24.049	41.166	23.085	11.931	11.701	70.324	21.818	6.919E+05	6.831E+05	4.356E+05	6592.7

Table B.9 $q''=78.17 - 78.70 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q'' [W/cm ²]	COM Power		Q _v [ml/min]	G [kg/m ² s]	x _e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
		V	A			In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
500.9	78.41	12.69	6.515	283.60	656.64	0.0082	0.5020	21.738	27.525	24.374	23.331	22.387	42.821	21.376	7.174E+05	6.830E+05	6.225E+05	21233.8
501.5	78.52	12.64	6.425	268.87	622.68	0.0093	0.5292	21.632	27.627	24.300	23.116	22.277	42.718	21.406	7.164E+05	6.841E+05	6.192E+05	20205.4
499.3	78.17	12.74	6.280	254.07	588.61	0.0105	0.5567	21.446	27.574	24.191	22.856	22.091	42.488	21.423	7.154E+05	6.848E+05	6.142E+05	19060.7
502.5	78.67	12.45	6.180	239.28	554.30	0.0122	0.5944	21.367	27.589	24.222	22.675	21.999	42.799	21.490	7.164E+05	6.877E+05	6.131E+05	17822.0
502.7	78.70	12.56	6.080	224.40	519.86	0.0134	0.6332	21.289	27.618	24.200	22.504	21.902	42.810	21.508	7.126E+05	6.858E+05	6.064E+05	16412.5
502.6	78.68	12.55	6.015	209.41	485.27	0.0149	0.6771	21.074	27.585	24.098	22.206	21.669	42.977	21.527	7.115E+05	6.864E+05	6.012E+05	15047.6
501.1	78.45	12.59	5.940	194.31	450.44	0.0170	0.7265	20.776	27.537	24.005	21.835	21.354	42.998	21.535	7.091E+05	6.861E+05	5.941E+05	13542.8
500.1	78.29	12.64	5.800	179.09	415.33	0.0189	0.7847	20.534	27.418	23.861	21.454	21.044	43.145	21.545	7.057E+05	6.850E+05	5.874E+05	12038.0
501.8	78.56	12.75	5.500	163.75	379.87	0.0202	0.8588	20.375	27.467	23.772	21.188	20.847	44.051	21.551	7.035E+05	6.847E+05	5.811E+05	10458.1
502.2	78.62	12.83	5.235	148.25	344.13	0.0226	0.9462	20.025	27.353	23.579	20.676	20.399	47.783	21.521	7.033E+05	6.864E+05	5.757E+05	8898.3
501.8	78.56	12.86	4.955	132.66	308.08	0.0266	1.0540	19.399	27.152	23.427	20.005	19.757	53.361	21.536	6.987E+05	6.846E+05	5.623E+05	7146.9
500.4	78.34	12.63	5.680	116.96	271.82	0.0548	1.1940	17.341	28.717	23.200	15.961	15.571	65.161	21.575	6.965E+05	6.852E+05	4.929E+05	7069.7

Table B.10 $q''=86.09 - 86.32 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q"	COM Power		Q _v	G	x _e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
[W]	[W/cm ²]	V	A	[ml/min]	[kg/m ² s]	In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
551.4	86.32	12.44	6.150	254.65	587.79	0.0028	0.6128	23.611	28.768	25.370	25.021	24.237	46.737	21.769	7.410E+05	7.094E+05	6.545E+05	19162.4
551.2	86.30	12.40	6.085	239.87	553.49	0.0050	0.6512	23.565	28.838	25.465	24.850	24.166	46.660	21.819	7.392E+05	7.092E+05	6.490E+05	18065.6
550.0	86.10	12.38	5.995	224.94	519.13	0.0079	0.6929	23.292	28.843	25.407	24.417	23.871	46.698	21.852	7.380E+05	7.101E+05	6.420E+05	16507.2
551.0	86.27	12.43	5.900	209.88	484.64	0.0094	0.7426	22.995	28.778	25.242	24.056	23.556	46.933	21.853	7.378E+05	7.119E+05	6.371E+05	15178.1
550.1	86.12	12.45	5.760	194.74	449.87	0.0106	0.7976	22.846	28.760	25.127	23.796	23.342	47.302	21.975	7.403E+05	7.166E+05	6.338E+05	13814.8
550.5	86.18	12.55	5.525	179.59	414.69	0.0130	0.8661	22.756	28.895	25.247	23.611	23.211	48.189	22.035	7.369E+05	7.154E+05	6.272E+05	11981.0
550.0	86.11	12.72	5.235	164.21	379.31	0.0151	0.9448	22.588	28.959	25.157	23.264	22.944	51.952	22.058	7.365E+05	7.172E+05	6.207E+05	10090.1
549.9	86.09	12.71	5.045	148.69	343.63	0.0179	1.0410	22.122	28.808	25.002	22.731	22.440	56.767	22.137	7.348E+05	7.175E+05	6.113E+05	8615.8
551.0	86.26	12.49	5.755	133.06	307.65	0.0375	1.1670	19.097	30.264	24.859	20.038	19.604	68.174	22.219	7.373E+05	7.231E+05	5.689E+05	7659.0

Table B.11 $q''=93.75 - 93.94 \text{ W/cm}^2$.

Q	q"	COM Power		Q _v	G	x _e		Temp [C]						Pressure [Pa]				
[W]	[W/cm ²]	V	A	[ml/min]	[kg/m ² s]	In	Out	COM In	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA Out	T _c	T _{amb}	COM Out	CON Out	EVA In	EVA DP
598.8	93.75	12.67	5.455	194.86	449.72	0.0012	0.8643	24.407	29.302	25.422	25.270	24.869	51.747	22.319	7.459E+05	7.213E+05	6.596E+05	13431.8
599.9	93.91	12.81	5.215	179.57	414.71	0.0020	0.9382	24.053	29.003	25.221	24.969	24.459	54.742	22.229	7.390E+05	7.161E+05	6.507E+05	12059.1
600.0	93.94	12.69	4.765	164.21	379.31	0.0047	1.0250	23.886	28.908	25.151	24.559	24.245	60.069	22.210	7.358E+05	7.153E+05	6.448E+05	10248.8

Appendix C – Indirect Refrigeration Cooling Experimental Data

This appendix includes all experimental data obtained in the present study. Nomenclature used in the data tables are as following:

Symbols

D_h	Channel hydraulic diameter
DP	Pressure drop
\dot{m}	Total mass flow rate to test section
P_{in}	Channel inlet pressure
P_{out}	Channel outlet pressure
q''_c	Heat flux through the heat sink base surface [W/cm ²]
q''	Heat loss compensated base heat flux [W/cm ²]
$h_{1,2,3}$	Reduced heat transfer coefficients [W/m ² .K]
T_{in}	Channel inlet temperature
T_{out}	Channel outlet temperature
T_{sat}	Saturated temperature
$T_{tc,1,2,3}$	Thermocouple temperature reading
$T_{w,1,2,3}$	Calculated wall temperatures
TS	Test Section
Q	Total heat transfer rate to the copper heat sink [W]

Table C.1 Test data, TS#1, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 2.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	1	• Mass flow rate	:	2.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	175.7 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.2 Test data, TS#1, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 3.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	1	• Mass flow rate	:	3.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	175.7 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.3 Test data, TS#1, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 4.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	1	• Mass flow rate	:	4.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	175.7 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.4 Test data, TS#1, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 5.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	1	• Mass flow rate	:	5.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	175.7 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.5 Test data, TS#1, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 10.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	1	• Mass flow rate	:	10.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	175.7 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.6 Test data, TS#1, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 2.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	1	• Mass flow rate	:	2.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	175.7 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data									
No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	-30.9220	-30.9641	-30.9716	-29.7068	-29.8150	21.0250	16.5112	-0.0085	2.0010
2	-5.3073	-5.1164	-5.0492	-29.7581	-24.7665	20.4299	16.5013	20.7624	2.0009
3	18.4313	18.8620	18.9795	-30.2710	-20.7972	19.9951	16.5136	40.5325	2.0008
4	44.1359	44.7862	44.9471	-29.7779	-15.6685	19.5060	16.4742	60.8255	2.0009
5	66.7721	67.5233	67.9299	-29.6772	-10.6460	19.2740	16.5166	80.5694	2.0010
6	85.5364	86.5842	87.3795	-30.3501	-6.4441	19.2303	16.5001	101.3583	2.0009
7	99.8295	101.2993	102.2814	-29.6253	-3.3407	19.1260	16.5270	118.9941	2.0010
8	116.1058	118.6403	120.7603	-29.4250	7.0255	19.3878	16.5656	160.7355	2.0011
9	129.3876	132.9101	136.0452	-27.9672	16.0463	19.6556	16.5354	200.3304	2.0012
10	135.6229	139.6044	142.9290	-26.8142	23.5138	19.9430	16.5488	218.3158	2.0012
11	144.8761	149.5182	153.7472	-25.5577	31.8082	21.2106	16.5720	239.1286	2.0013
12	149.4052	153.9377	158.1887	-24.7110	38.4755	21.7500	16.5788	252.0907	2.0013
13	148.9977	154.2228	159.1702	-24.0973	43.9683	21.5023	16.5815	258.9866	2.0013
14	152.9333	158.3890	163.6036	-23.6047	49.8755	21.4807	16.5464	270.6988	2.0013
15	159.7982	165.3246	170.7806	-23.2584	51.3414	20.6876	16.5807	283.4470	2.0081

Reduced Data										
No	DP [Pa]	q" _e [W/cm ²]	q" [W/cm ²]	q"/q" _e	h ₁ [W/m ² K]	h ₂ [W/m ² K]	h ₃ [W/m ² K]	T _{w1} [°C]	T _{w2} [°C]	T _{w3} [°C]
1	31121.7	0.0								
2	27086.8	41.5	37.200	89.6%	6051.8	5986.3	5963.5	-9.70	-9.50	-9.40
3	24004.5	81.1	70.149	86.5%	5623.0	5555.5	5537.3	10.10	10.50	10.60
4	20903.8	121.7	103.785	85.3%	5442.3	5377.7	5361.9	31.70	32.40	32.50
5	19011.1	161.1	137.175	85.1%	5560.1	5501.2	5469.8	50.30	51.10	51.50
6	18823.9	202.7	173.700	85.7%	5981.2	5906.3	5850.7	64.60	65.70	66.40
7	17919.8	238.0	205.150	86.2%	6411.1	6309.3	6243.0	75.00	76.50	77.50
8	19458.5	321.5	285.370	88.8%	8836.8	8600.2	8411.8	81.50	84.00	86.10
9	21513.1	400.7	362.345	90.4%	11438.5	11009.8	10654.4	85.30	88.80	91.90
10	23402.1	436.6	397.830	91.1%	12933.2	12372.8	11940.9	87.20	91.20	94.50
11	31982.1	478.3	438.040	91.6%	14352.6	13628.0	13028.9	91.50	96.10	100.30
12	35654.4	504.2	463.955	92.0%	15663.0	14868.3	14192.9	92.80	97.30	101.50
13	33928.0	518.0	478.700	92.4%	17254.5	16189.8	15296.2	90.60	95.80	100.70
14	34020.6	541.4	501.935	92.7%	18623.6	17394.9	16363.0	91.70	97.10	102.20
15										

Table C.7 Test data, TS#1, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 3.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	1	• Mass flow rate	:	3.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	175.7 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	-30 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.10 Test data, TS#2, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 2.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	2	• Mass flow rate	:	2.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	200.0 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.13 Test data, TS#2, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 5.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	2	• Mass flow rate	:	5.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	200.0 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.15 Test data, TS#2, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 2.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	2	• Mass flow rate	:	2.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	200.0 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.16 Test data, TS#2, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 3.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	2	• Mass flow rate	:	3.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	200.0 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.18 Test data, TS#2, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 5.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	2	• Mass flow rate	:	5.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	200.0 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	24	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.19 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 2.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	2.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.21 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 4.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	4.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.23 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 10.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	10.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.24 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 15.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	15.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.25 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 20.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	20.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data									
No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	0.1958	0.4391	0.3811	0.1691	-0.1447	34.0283	16.6276	0.0000	20.0221
2	24.8769	25.3891	26.8395	0.1166	0.9639	33.4430	16.6164	40.4645	19.9927
3	47.8988	48.7659	51.8214	-0.2647	1.9038	32.8943	16.6229	80.5126	20.0022
4	64.6690	65.4824	70.5545	0.0331	3.5153	32.6224	16.6341	119.6369	19.9954
5	90.0025	91.2290	97.8382	0.2117	4.9717	30.0715	16.6285	161.5437	20.0002
6	114.4544	116.1384	124.4568	-0.0476	5.8421	27.7838	16.5966	199.2230	20.0001
7	128.5276	129.5854	139.1309	-0.1123	6.6836	27.5917	16.5878	239.8705	19.9969
8	143.6143	143.7528	154.6302	-0.0964	8.3007	26.3812	16.5894	279.9474	19.9951
9	157.7523	156.4364	168.7069	-0.1978	9.2368	25.1200	16.5890	322.3832	20.0007
10	164.6089	162.9959	175.9847	-0.4944	9.0867	24.4272	16.5709	342.7855	20.0014

Reduced Data										
No	DP [Pa]	q" _e [W/cm ²]	q" [W/cm ²]	q"/q" _e	h ₁ [W/m ² K]	h ₂ [W/m ² K]	h ₃ [W/m ² K]	T _{w1} [°C]	T _{w2} [°C]	T _{w3} [°C]
1	119973.6									
2	116015.3	80.9	75.523	93.3%	16476.6	15946.6	14615.3	16.40	16.91	18.36
3	112187.0	161.0	149.710	93.0%	17180.9	16687.5	15153.8	31.02	31.88	34.93
4	110235.7	239.3	223.830	93.5%	20789.0	20333.5	17889.0	39.34	40.15	45.20
5	92686.7	323.1	301.190	93.2%	19735.5	19276.9	17131.9	55.75	56.97	63.53
6	77132.9	398.4	370.185	92.9%	18583.0	18130.1	16182.1	72.14	73.81	82.06
7	75869.1	479.7	448.260	93.4%	21202.7	20894.0	18467.9	77.15	78.20	87.65
8	67512.0	559.9	524.780	93.7%	23240.6	23198.6	20319.2	83.30	83.44	94.20
9	58819.1	644.8	606.605	94.1%	25647.7	26074.2	22572.9	87.86	86.56	98.68
10	54167.4	685.6	645.690	94.2%	26556.1	27083.9	23346.7	90.12	88.53	101.34
					</					

Table C.26 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 2.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	2.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.27 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 3.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	3.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	-30 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.28 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 4.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	4.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data

No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	-27.3716	-27.8147	-27.2058	-30.1166	-30.3237	18.0577	16.5006	0.0085	4.0070
2	2.5921	2.1627	3.6562	-29.9681	-27.1551	17.8490	16.4739	20.2346	4.0062
3	30.3585	30.5934	33.0457	-29.8738	-24.7851	17.7487	16.4713	40.0075	4.0063
4	57.9614	58.3204	61.8855	-30.0180	-22.1074	17.6773	16.4847	59.9808	4.0062
5	79.7691	80.1751	84.7046	-29.6454	-19.3860	17.6307	16.4711	81.6570	4.0055
6	88.2648	88.2945	93.5877	-29.9561	-16.6978	17.7117	16.5001	101.9005	4.0062
7	95.4181	95.1249	101.1523	-29.9575	-14.0715	17.8098	16.5163	121.1069	4.0062
8	107.4403	107.5784	114.0599	-29.7621	-8.4497	17.9610	16.5020	159.1415	4.0062
9	119.3998	119.2701	127.6115	-30.0789	-4.0934	18.1811	16.5212	200.7503	4.0064
10	130.5750	130.1070	140.0755	-30.0267	2.2476	18.4687	16.5192	239.9382	4.0065
11	141.6422	140.7724	152.3071	-29.5279	8.4496	18.7722	16.4951	280.3424	4.0066
12	146.8353	145.7890	158.0879	-29.9522	10.0941	18.9517	16.4988	300.0109	4.0065
13	152.5164	151.2667	164.4192	-30.2127	12.4898	19.1832	16.5418	321.5811	4.0050
14	157.6321	156.1977	170.1338	-30.1226	14.8140	19.3310	16.5677	340.5657	4.0059

Reduced Data

No	DP [Pa]	q''_e [W/cm ²]	q'' [W/cm ²]	q''/q''_e	h_1 [W/m ² K]	h_2 [W/m ² K]	h_3 [W/m ² K]	T_{w1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{w2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{w3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
1	10735.6									
2	9481.0	40.5	34.622	85.6%	4287.6	4356.6	4125.6	-1.27	-1.70	-0.21
3	8808.0	80.0	67.055	83.8%	4521.6	4500.4	4290.0	22.82	23.06	25.51
4	8222.4	120.0	100.103	83.4%	4657.2	4634.2	4417.2	46.65	47.01	50.57
5	7995.0	163.3	137.945	84.5%	5271.9	5247.7	4991.9	64.11	64.52	69.03
6	8353.9	203.8	176.650	86.7%	6555.4	6553.3	6192.1	68.18	68.21	73.48
7	8918.3	242.2	213.450	88.1%	7802.4	7827.3	7345.4	71.12	70.82	76.82
8	10059.0	318.3	287.050	90.2%	10474.6	10459.0	9775.2	74.68	74.82	81.25
9	11444.4	401.5	368.115	91.7%	13426.9	13445.7	12334.8	77.28	77.15	85.43
10	13441.5	479.9	444.580	92.6%	16465.7	16550.4	14915.6	79.60	79.14	89.01
11	15699.5	560.7	522.970	93.3%	19787.4	19981.3	17683.9	81.56	80.70	92.11
12	16912.3	600.0	561.250	93.5%	21267.2	21518.4	18894.5	82.29	81.26	93.42
13	18211.5	643.2	603.335	93.8%	23012.0	23339.2	20300.7	83.07	81.83	94.82
14	19052.4	681.1	640.385	94.0%	24612.9	25018.3	21567.2	83.85	82.43	96.18

Table C.29 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 5.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	5.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.30 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 10.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	10.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	-30 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.31 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 15.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	15.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data									
No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	-29.3109	-28.9118	-28.6781	-30.1871	-31.0660	27.4853	16.4975	0.0000	14.9883
2	5.3480	6.2446	8.3005	-29.9184	-29.4873	26.6214	16.5187	40.5917	15.0145
3	36.8727	38.4559	42.2956	-29.7584	-27.8348	25.9501	16.4882	80.4994	14.9946
4	65.9044	67.5616	73.2979	-29.9592	-26.4016	25.3875	16.4689	119.8445	14.9883
5	88.2377	89.6907	97.0186	-29.7992	-24.4092	24.9091	16.4751	161.1491	14.9778
6	107.7216	108.6953	117.2125	-30.1016	-23.8603	24.4328	16.4719	199.0531	14.9883
7	125.2627	125.2965	135.1283	-30.0164	-21.1269	23.6511	16.4847	239.1991	15.0029
8	138.7922	138.2394	149.5182	-30.1305	-19.0357	23.1833	16.5122	281.8452	14.9999
9	150.9418	148.9942	161.4659	-30.3498	-18.4752	22.6236	16.5305	317.8772	15.0026
10	164.5138	162.0241	175.9790	-30.2229	-17.6871	21.9090	16.5441	359.5808	14.9886

Reduced Data										
No	DP [Pa]	q" _e [W/cm ²]	q" [W/cm ²]	q"/q" _e	h ₁ [W/m ² K]	h ₂ [W/m ² K]	h ₃ [W/m ² K]	T _{w1} [°C]	T _{w2} [°C]	T _{w3} [°C]
1	75757.9									
2	69655.4	81.2	74.228	91.4%	9467.2	9155.6	8513.3	-2.94	-2.04	0.01
3	65237.4	161.0	145.915	90.6%	10129.4	9809.0	9110.0	20.45	22.03	25.86
4	61491.4	239.7	217.045	90.6%	10687.0	10434.4	9645.1	41.34	42.99	48.70
5	58150.8	322.3	294.135	91.3%	12333.7	12115.1	11121.0	54.80	56.24	63.52
6	54889.0	398.1	365.225	91.7%	13516.8	13374.4	12245.4	66.03	67.00	75.45
7	49410.2	478.4	441.405	92.3%	15204.8	15199.6	13818.0	74.70	74.73	84.48
8	45995.8	563.7	523.520	92.9%	17593.2	17690.1	15903.2	78.68	78.13	89.29
9	42010.3	635.8	592.920	93.3%	19270.1	19635.9	17507.6	82.71	80.79	93.10
10	36989.7	719.2	673.070	93.6%	21224.7	21725.7	19187.0	86.87	84.41	98.17

Table C.32 Test data, TS#3, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 20.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	3	• Mass flow rate	:	20.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	334.1 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data									
No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	-28.9678	-28.9467	-28.7192	-29.8796	-30.7719	34.9393	16.5777	0.0000	19.9945
2	-0.4436	-0.0501	1.9433	-29.8047	-29.8648	33.9041	16.6416	39.9178	19.9946
3	26.2995	27.0305	30.8385	-29.7902	-28.7880	32.9586	16.6263	79.9843	19.9945
4	49.1410	49.9658	55.4274	-29.8439	-27.6976	32.2384	16.5964	119.9302	19.9922
5	70.6227	71.3622	78.2080	-29.8348	-26.6456	31.6267	16.5785	160.7013	19.9984
6	95.1772	95.8363	104.3755	-29.7102	-25.6947	29.7267	16.5614	199.0519	19.9948
7	119.8776	120.7000	130.7426	-29.8410	-23.8302	27.6065	16.4963	239.3122	19.9949
8	135.0170	135.2654	146.6936	-29.9892	-23.0802	26.3841	16.4945	278.7763	19.9963
9	148.5491	147.4052	160.0548	-30.2089	-23.0840	25.2304	16.4808	319.0165	19.9948
10	163.3528	161.4452	175.5324	-30.0516	-21.9175	24.1673	16.5179	363.9077	19.9949

Reduced Data										
No	DP [Pa]	q" _e [W/cm ²]	q" [W/cm ²]	q"/q" _e	h ₁ [W/m ² K]	h ₂ [W/m ² K]	h ₃ [W/m ² K]	T _{w1} [°C]	T _{w2} [°C]	T _{w3} [°C]
1	126598.7									
2	119020.8	79.8	74.490	93.3%	12116.9	11890.5	10862.2	-8.74	-8.35	-6.36
3	112607.3	160.0	147.740	92.4%	13022.9	12778.5	11639.1	9.71	10.44	14.23
4	107847.4	239.9	221.785	92.5%	14455.6	14228.7	12888.8	24.12	24.94	30.38
5	103754.1	321.4	297.990	92.7%	15823.0	15641.1	14137.0	36.86	37.60	44.40
6	90771.4	398.1	368.500	92.6%	15741.4	15611.5	14103.5	53.22	53.88	62.34
7	76602.1	478.6	442.625	92.5%	15936.1	15798.1	14286.7	69.23	70.05	79.99
8	68186.4	557.6	517.920	92.9%	17599.2	17555.5	15755.9	75.58	75.83	87.14
9	60326.3	638.0	595.115	93.3%	19415.7	19631.3	17484.2	80.09	78.96	91.46
10	52740.1	727.8	681.445	93.6%	21516.3	21903.7	19332.8	84.76	82.88	96.77

Table C.34 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 3.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	3.0 [g/s]
• D _h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T _{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P _{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• T _{sat} (@ P _{out})	:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.35 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 4.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	4.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data

No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	-0.159485	-0.136284	0.304539	0.006923	0.18253	17.0351	16.50468	0	4.004219
2	28.53984	28.59176	29.40519	0.033186	3.282261	16.99372	16.4957	20.14906	4.006057
3	56.82082	56.96852	58.66708	0.063935	6.502368	16.98226	16.5148	39.74445	4.006607
4	76.49398	76.7095	79.02951	0.357823	10.26175	16.95088	16.51686	59.05548	4.003857
5	88.45388	88.63984	90.52006	-0.155666	13.37248	17.01754	16.54887	80.51196	4.001185
6	94.13675	94.29782	95.92651	-0.178632	16.61264	17.06491	16.56327	98.84563	4.008848
7	100.5608	100.7253	102.2923	-0.233991	19.72872	17.11282	16.57098	119.9479	4.006293
8	107.669	107.8564	109.5427	-0.240043	20.4007	17.1739	16.562	141.6338	4.006299
9	114.4785	114.71	116.5829	-0.084175	23.9833	17.30119	16.59242	162.454	4.005733
10	120.2944	120.5707	122.5963	-0.327567	26.96271	17.37348	16.53839	181.1798	4.00625
11	126.4299	126.7471	128.8697	-0.117475	30.49168	17.52684	16.53339	201.5158	4.006292
12	132.0329	132.4004	134.6575	-0.212642	33.4249	17.68584	16.51933	220.3307	4.006231
13	138.4967	138.9314	141.3944	-0.120946	37.25849	17.89041	16.51951	241.8041	4.004041
14	144.1296	144.6264	147.2348	-0.211609	40.30501	18.11048	16.53026	260.8207	4.006205
15	150.7802	151.365	154.2202	-0.109698	43.89882	18.32991	16.52929	281.1359	4.006171
16	156.7412	157.4486	160.6714	0.087158	46.99813	18.50207	16.52691	299.5289	4.006251
17	163.6342	164.0863	168.6665	0.047839	47.49181	18.50184	16.53954	321.1955	4.005576

Reduced Data

No	DP [Pa]	q''_e [W/cm ²]	q'' [W/cm ²]	q''/q''_e	h_1 [W/m ² K]	h_2 [W/m ² K]	h_3 [W/m ² K]	T_{w1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{w2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{w3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
1	3657.1			0.0						
2	3433.7	40.3	29.882	74.2%	2533.0	2527.4	2442.8	25.53	25.58	26.39
3	3223.0	79.5	57.724	72.6%	2448.0	2440.3	2355.2	50.97	51.12	52.82
4	2992.4	118.1	89.009	75.4%	2907.8	2897.5	2791.5	67.44	67.66	69.97
5	3231.4	161.0	127.970	79.5%	3801.3	3790.8	3687.7	75.41	75.59	77.47
6	3458.7	197.7	163.580	82.7%	4868.2	4856.5	4741.5	77.44	77.60	79.22
7	3735.8	239.9	204.370	85.2%	6075.2	6060.4	5922.5	79.67	79.83	81.39
8	4218.9	283.3	245.660	86.7%	7102.2	7083.0	6914.8	82.52	82.71	84.39
9	4886.7	324.9	286.080	88.0%	8253.4	8225.9	8010.3	85.15	85.38	87.25
10	5757.7	362.4	322.245	88.9%	9276.3	9239.6	8979.3	87.22	87.50	89.51
11	6849.6	403.0	361.780	89.8%	10480.6	10432.9	10123.7	89.25	89.57	91.68
12	8042.8	440.7	398.280	90.4%	11564.6	11503.5	11141.5	91.07	91.43	93.67
13	9452.0	483.6	440.135	91.0%	12870.9	12790.0	12350.1	93.17	93.60	96.05
14	10895.2	521.6	477.060	91.5%	14001.8	13901.1	13395.2	94.95	95.45	98.03
15	12414.8	562.3	516.310	91.8%	15129.6	15002.1	14408.9	97.49	98.07	100.90
16	13618.2	599.1	551.870	92.1%	16158.8	15994.7	15287.0	99.72	100.42	103.61
17										

Table C.36 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 5.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	5.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data									
No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	0.440988	0.442231	0.465855	0.058454	0.130554	17.33576	16.54545	0	5.012116
2	25.37858	25.42177	26.16378	-0.02662	2.467137	17.26732	16.51494	19.64372	5.008682
3	50.02368	50.1183	51.60079	0.085194	5.187305	17.21804	16.50527	40.02882	5.014944
4	73.98829	74.16003	76.63047	0.051426	8.312456	17.16488	16.52067	59.67617	5.008712
5	86.39626	86.56362	88.78714	-0.011382	10.82533	17.22022	16.54479	81.10575	5.008862
6	93.99479	94.13856	95.91183	0.009696	12.66829	17.2845	16.56277	100.8657	5.008818
7	100.0187	100.1609	101.7961	-0.148743	14.61938	17.26832	16.50516	120.0545	5.008889
8	105.9066	106.0569	107.6746	-0.0962	18.42732	17.33173	16.49976	139.6412	5.008843
9	111.8974	112.0602	113.7065	-0.145508	21.51951	17.47608	16.54478	160.6619	5.00677
10	116.7472	116.9192	118.5583	-0.132233	23.93667	17.59933	16.56529	178.8915	5.004972
11	122.5063	122.6863	124.3055	-0.058118	27.16217	17.63327	16.52499	201.7571	5.008933
12	127.9359	128.134	129.8224	-0.097604	29.4289	17.77876	16.56176	221.5572	5.008961
13	133.4668	133.6758	135.3664	-0.261744	31.88111	17.901	16.61768	240.7354	5.005372
14	138.7037	139.0378	141.6089	-0.436358	33.86974	17.87016	16.54502	258.4648	5.008983
15	145.9598	146.5948	151.2516	-0.25872	36.09202	17.91224	16.56064	282.1314	5.009076
16	152.6478	153.6616	160.7582	-0.622614	39.0871	17.92127	16.56322	302.7733	5.009007
17	159.6446	161.1464	171.1967	-0.647046	42.19062	17.94203	16.58905	321.8921	5.005632

Reduced Data										
No	DP [Pa]	q'' _e [W/cm ²]	q'' [W/cm ²]	q''/q'' _e	h ₁ [W/m ² K]	h ₂ [W/m ² K]	h ₃ [W/m ² K]	T _{w1} [°C]	T _{w2} [°C]	T _{w3} [°C]
1	5449.0		0.0							
2	5187.5	39.3	30.073	76.5%	2887.5	2881.5	2782	22.35	22.39	23.14
3	4914.4	80.1	61.107	76.3%	3012.1	3005.1	2898.7	43.84	43.94	45.42
4	4441.7	119.4	90.925	76.2%	3050.6	3041.8	2920.4	64.74	64.92	67.38
5	4656.9	162.2	129.590	79.9%	3910.3	3900.4	3773.6	73.19	73.36	75.57
6	4976.2	201.7	167.045	82.8%	4874.2	4863.9	4741.1	76.94	77.09	78.85
7	5261.8	240.1	203.980	85.0%	5885.8	5873.7	5738.3	79.17	79.31	80.94
8	5736.2	279.3	242.190	86.7%	7045.9	7030.5	6869.1	81.12	81.27	82.88
9	6421.1	321.3	283.110	88.1%	8282.1	8262.4	8068.7	82.89	83.05	84.69
10	7129.4	357.8	318.670	89.1%	9402.7	9378.9	9158.4	84.066	84.237	85.865
11	7641.3	403.5	363.640	90.1%	10928.2	10898.8	10641.4	85.17	85.348	86.955
12	8390.9	443.1	402.170	90.8%	12134.3	12098.3	11799.7	86.599	86.795	88.471
13	8848.2	481.5	439.240	91.2%	13257.3	13215.8	12889.6	88.275	88.482	90.159
14	9136.6	516.9	473.520	91.6%	14238.7	14168	13646.3	89.939	90.27	92.819
15	9318.9	564.3	518.650	91.9%	15440	15296.5	14320.6	92.478	93.107	97.719
16	9363.4	605.5	558.090	92.2%	16453.9	16213.9	14710.9	95.03	96.034	103.057
17	9328.5	643.8	594.115	92.3%	17229.1	16865.8	14778.5	98.231	99.716	109.656

Table C.37 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 10.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	10.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.39 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = 0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 20.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	20.0 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	0 [°C]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [°C]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.41 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 3.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	3 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data									
No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	-30.61856	-30.61388	-30.52494	-30.1565	-29.95601	17.12808	16.50373	0	3.003194
2	-0.814706	-0.770074	-0.003209	-29.8863	-25.38783	17.01221	16.49593	19.52935	3.003274
3	28.93894	29.04342	30.68025	-29.94142	-21.30121	16.95366	16.50157	40.50779	3.003306
4	56.85208	57.02142	59.45742	-30.03132	-18.27882	16.91209	16.50677	60.70905	3.003277
5	78.29474	78.53116	81.67218	-29.86193	-13.81721	16.88332	16.50555	80.47711	3.003308
6	87.25082	87.50381	90.62407	-30.26386	-10.07103	16.91995	16.52003	101.0796	3.003335
7	96.01388	96.28095	99.35225	-30.01393	-6.308916	16.93078	16.50896	123.1344	3.003274
8	102.7897	103.0691	106.0777	-30.07294	-1.935167	17.02734	16.55893	142.0907	3.00341
9	109.2422	109.4784	111.8663	-29.79809	-0.279192	17.02731	16.5316	160.7459	3.00339
10	115.7237	115.9564	118.1726	-30.19693	1.786237	17.06962	16.51541	181.3712	3.00089
11	122.4271	122.7003	125.1583	-30.00342	4.659206	17.15709	16.55296	202.0605	3.003327
12	127.7707	128.111	131.0113	-30.16195	7.416452	17.19344	16.51886	220.5242	3.003403
13	130.7532	131.1056	133.9565	-30.09941	8.935128	17.2415	16.52534	230.4896	3.003348
14	133.7245	134.3035	138.7589	-30.19584	10.28313	17.25832	16.51292	241.2178	3.005021
15	137.8783	138.5417	143.4066	-30.15327	13.10493	17.32572	16.54416	254.948	3.003309
16	139.7675	140.4746	145.4245	-29.93715	15.48568	17.31409	16.50871	259.9889	3.003269
17	143.8571	144.739	150.6409	-29.80856	17.93537	17.32165	16.51128	271.2521	2.99322
18	145.8752	146.9526	153.8553	-30.37011	17.78095	17.38871	16.55721	280.2983	3.003361
19	149.6092	150.8999	158.8283	-30.16845	19.6244	17.40426	16.57903	290.3825	3.003323
20	152.44	153.7582	161.5314	-30.04183	21.29562	17.35311	16.532	300.0213	3.003299
21	158.0322	159.7279	169.3366	-30.09495	23.88419	17.37687	16.55047	313.0487	3.003415
22	160.8472	162.5097	171.5726	-30.16999	24.7545	17.40615	16.5775	321.6362	3.003387
23	170.8633	172.3075	179.6159	-29.71283	29.05068	17.33788	16.56043	343.5413	3.003384

Reduced Data										
No	DP [Pa]	q"e [W/cm ²]	q" [W/cm ²]	q"/q"e	h ₁ [W/m ² K]	h ₂ [W/m ² K]	h ₃ [W/m ² K]	T _{w1} [°C]	T _{w2} [°C]	T _{w3} [°C]
1	4304.7		0.0							
2	3559.6	39.1	29.994	76.8%	2547.2	2542.4	2461.8	-3.81	-3.77	-3.00
3	3117.1	81.0	60.129	74.2%	2508.2	2502.7	2419.7	22.88	22.99	24.62
4	2794.6	121.4	89.273	73.5%	2510.2	2504.2	2421.0	47.81	47.98	50.41
5	2604.6	161.0	120.780	75.0%	2788.2	2780.6	2683.1	66.00	66.24	69.37
6	2757.4	202.2	159.480	78.9%	3568.9	3558.7	3438.6	70.99	71.25	74.36
7	2908.3	246.3	201.310	81.7%	4414.9	4402.0	4258.6	75.46	75.72	78.78
8	3229.6	284.2	238.020	83.8%	5204.6	5188.7	5023.7	78.45	78.73	81.72
9	3417.8	321.5	273.720	85.1%	5904.0	5889.0	5741.5	81.21	81.45	83.82
10	3821.1	362.7	313.560	86.4%	6697.0	6680.4	6526.4	83.57	83.80	86.01
11	4165.4	404.1	353.505	87.5%	7516.9	7495.2	7305.2	86.13	86.40	88.84
12	4651.1	441.0	389.210	88.2%	8294.9	8265.0	8018.5	87.77	88.10	90.98
13	4937.8	461.0	408.685	88.7%	8722.1	8689.5	8434.5	88.73	89.08	91.90
14	5139.3	482.4	429.135	89.0%	9167.6	9111.5	8701.1	89.57	90.14	94.57
15	5388.7	509.9	455.820	89.4%	9786.7	9717.7	9240.3	90.94	91.60	96.43
16	5552.9	520.0	465.920	89.6%	10070.9	9994.8	9492.9	91.78	92.48	97.39
17	5587.3	542.5	487.530	89.9%	10514.2	10415.6	9800.6	93.60	94.48	100.33
18	5733.0	560.6	504.675	90.0%	10845.0	10721.6	9992.7	93.84	94.90	101.74
19	5689.8	580.8	523.950	90.2%	11211.5	11059.7	10210.2	95.55	96.82	104.68
20	5661.4	600.0	542.650	90.4%	11650.4	11488.9	10620.5	96.42	97.72	105.42
21	5697.8	626.1	566.850	90.5%	11989.1	11779.4	10716.9	99.45	101.13	110.64
22	5713.4	643.3	583.495	90.7%	12287.0	12077.3	11048.7	100.52	102.16	111.13
23										

Table C.43 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 5.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	5 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Measurement data									
No	T_{tc1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{tc3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{in} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{out} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	P_{in} [psia]	P_{out} [psia]	Q [W]	\dot{m} [g/s]
1	-29.26479	-29.26006	-29.17025	-29.85238	-30.36789	17.60886	16.5139	0	5.008874
2	-4.06209	-4.01989	-3.294809	-29.74069	-26.90278	17.47784	16.50837	19.63553	5.011415
3	20.2441	20.33513	21.76137	-30.12987	-24.46113	17.36681	16.49438	39.71694	5.008701
4	47.10862	47.25906	49.4231	-30.19921	-21.72194	17.29117	16.49573	61.25459	5.008799
5	72.14747	72.38024	75.47283	-29.80541	-20.01951	17.2086	16.47043	82.09917	5.008735
6	85.00935	85.26451	88.41158	-29.94326	-16.52523	17.23906	16.4974	100.5938	5.008833
7	92.83244	93.06015	95.67877	-30.16118	-14.74118	17.30838	16.54186	119.8479	5.008752
8	100.055	100.2683	102.564	-30.33217	-12.30743	17.33204	16.53337	141.9947	5.00887
9	106.1902	106.4318	108.6061	-30.37372	-9.064833	17.32965	16.50172	161.8385	5.008789
10	112.2039	112.4685	114.6099	-30.44262	-6.500375	17.38927	16.52228	181.8336	5.008788
11	117.3426	117.6295	119.7336	-29.54405	-3.120405	17.42182	16.54049	199.8319	5.008862
12	123.86	124.1952	126.4379	-29.71159	-0.679426	17.49102	16.56642	222.7451	5.008947
13	129.075	129.4563	131.7992	-30.34937	0.792437	17.5056	16.5373	242.0887	5.006383
14	134.4897	134.9092	137.3825	-30.49008	2.954267	17.56356	16.5547	261.0899	5.008936
15	140.1287	140.6259	143.4434	-30.0943	6.579869	17.57867	16.55188	281.0018	5.008932
16	146.1313	146.674	149.5229	-29.8617	9.07258	17.56709	16.50679	301.3706	5.008966
17	153.1506	154.0047	158.244	-29.4672	11.69722	17.64254	16.49092	322.8179	5.008921
18	160.5331	161.5495	166.449	-30.52976	14.21746	17.76162	16.55997	343.7209	5.016132
19	167.5645	168.7313	174.1977	-29.73915	17.33535	17.76054	16.55756	362.9756	5.009056

Reduced Data										
No	DP [Pa]	q''_e [W/cm ²]	q'' [W/cm ²]	q''/q''_e	h_1 [W/m ² K]	h_2 [W/m ² K]	h_3 [W/m ² K]	T_{w1} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{w2} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	T_{w3} [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
1	7549.5		0.0							
2	6684.3	39.3	31.355	79.8%	3012.9	3006.8	2905.1	-7.19	-7.15	-6.43
3	6015.2	79.4	61.792	77.8%	3036.8	3030.0	2927.1	14.03	14.12	15.55
4	5484.4	122.5	94.248	76.9%	3012.7	3005.4	2904.7	37.58	37.73	39.89
5	5089.5	164.2	125.690	76.5%	3029.5	3021.0	2912.3	59.37	59.61	62.69
6	5113.6	201.2	158.285	78.7%	3503.6	3493.7	3376.0	68.88	69.14	72.27
7	5284.9	239.7	194.345	81.1%	4172.7	4162.5	4048.7	73.00	73.23	75.83
8	5506.7	284.0	236.945	83.4%	5030.3	5018.9	4899.6	75.84	76.05	78.33
9	5708.4	323.7	275.315	85.1%	5845.7	5830.7	5699.4	78.02	78.26	80.42
10	5977.7	363.7	314.005	86.3%	6654.9	6636.3	6489.6	80.03	80.29	82.42
11	6076.6	399.7	349.380	87.4%	7501.1	7478.1	7313.7	81.51	81.79	83.88
12	6374.9	445.5	393.715	88.4%	8443.7	8413.6	8217.3	83.42	83.76	85.98
13	6676.2	484.2	431.190	89.1%	9214.3	9177.0	8954.4	84.75	85.12	87.45
14	6955.9	522.2	467.995	89.6%	9999.3	9954.9	9700.7	86.33	86.75	89.20
15	7079.5	562.0	506.930	90.2%	10951.3	10893.1	10574.7	87.91	88.40	91.19
16	7310.5	602.7	546.500	90.7%	11818.4	11749.9	11403.0	89.78	90.31	93.13
17	7940.1	645.6	587.420	91.0%	12621.7	12507.9	11971.8	92.50	93.35	97.54
18	8285.1	687.4	626.970	91.2%	13202.9	13064.3	12435.2	95.71	96.72	101.56
19	8294.2	726.0	663.940	91.5%	13891.9	13726.1	12999.0	98.84	99.99	105.39

Table C.44 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 10.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	10 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$		63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]

Table C.46 Test data, TS#4, $T_{in} = -30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m = 20.0\text{ g/s}$.

• Test Section	:	4	• Mass flow rate	:	20 [g/s]
• D_h	:	415.9 [μm]	• T_{in}	:	-30 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]
• Number of Channels	:	11	• P_{out}	:	16.5 [psia]
			• $T_{sat} (@ P_{out})$:	63.59 [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

[illegible][illegible]